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THE NEW METHOD
GRAMMAR



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THE NEW METHOD GRAMMAR.

BY

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INTRODUCTION

THIS book is written for younger students of English as a foreign language. The book is written in English, for it is not assumed that the students are ignorant of that language. It is assumed that they have already gained a certain proficiency in reading, roughly equivalent to that obtained by reading the first four books of the *New Method Readers*. The vocabulary of this book corresponds to that of these first four readers, with the exception of grammatical terms and a certain number of words necessary for the purpose of explanations and examples. These extra words are listed in Appendix II.

As a result of continuous reading, the learners have come to gain a 'recognition knowledge' of some 1,500 words. As a result of having done composition exercises of various sorts, and perhaps of having been drilled in certain speech mechanisms, they have even come to have some proficiency in building English sentences correctly and in expressing themselves in speech.

Many teachers, however, consider that this knowledge of English should be consolidated by instruction in formal grammar, and that their pupils should come to know the chief rules of accidence and syntax, and be able to apply them. This book selects those rules that seem the most appropriate for this purpose, and provides many exercises for their application.

Both in the framing of the rules and the defining of the necessary grammatical terms considerable use has been made of the inductive and heuristic methods. The learners find out for themselves. Examples are given and the learners are helped to discover and apply the rule. The grammatical term is usually given only *after* the learners have been shown the need for it. The chapter

on nouns, for instance, does not begin with a definition of the term 'noun' but with copious examples of nouns, and the learner is subsequently told the name of these words and shown into what classes they may be divided. The attitude of the author towards the learner is not so much that of teacher towards pupil as that of the leader of an exploring expedition towards the members of the exploring party.

In this book grammar is neither treated as a method of interpreting thought and reasoning by means of language nor is it presented as a 'teaching subject'; it is looked upon simply as a series of definite instructions as to how to build up English sentences in the manner of those who use English as their mother-tongue.

The book is divided into two parts, the first dealing with the grammar of *classes of words* and the second with the *elements of the sentence*. In general the book follows the lines of traditional grammar and the terminology with which most teachers are familiar. Exceptions to this are made only in those cases in which the traditional and familiar treatment has been proved by experience to be too abstract for the minds of the young learners or unsuitable for the purpose of immediate application.

As we have said above, the book deals with the grammar of *classes of words*: nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc., and their subdivisions. Except in a few special cases it does not deal with the grammar of *individual words*. It does not, for instance, deal with the grammar of the verb *to have*, nor of the noun *people*, nor of the preposition *for*. Learners who need guidance and instruction on the grammar of individual words should be referred to *A Grammar of English Words*, which has been compiled to this particular end.

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KEY MAP

THE NEW METHOD GRAMMAR

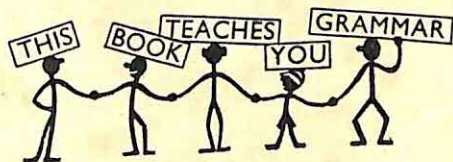
CHAPTER 1

WHAT A LANGUAGE IS MADE OF

§1. These are words :



§2. These are sentences :



§3. Grammar, as you know, is the study of *words* and *sentences*, of different sorts of words, and how they come together to make sentences.

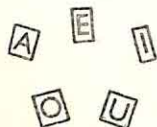
§4. These are letters. Written words are made up of letters.



These are called vowels.

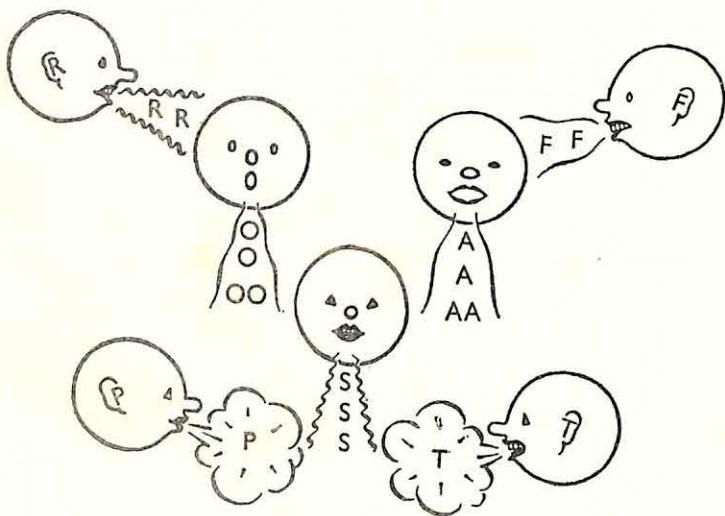
(This is sometimes a vowel.)

All the rest of the letters are called **consonants**.



§5. The right arrangement of letters in words is called **spelling**.

§6. These are sounds. Spoken words are made up of sounds.



§7. Making the right sounds in the right places is called **pronunciation**.

§8. Sometimes people use special letters such as :

[æ], [ɔ:], [θ], [ʊ], [ʃ]

to show the pronunciation of words. These are called **phonetic signs**.

§9. English words as they are written are often very different from English words as spoken. Thus, for instance, the letter A may be pronounced in different ways.

In the word *calm* it is pronounced [ɑ:]—[kɑ:m];

In the word *cat* it is pronounced [æ]—[kæt];

In the word *call* it is pronounced [ɔ:]—[kɔ:l];

In the word *was* it is pronounced [ɔ]—[wɔz];

In the word *alone* it is pronounced [ə]—[ə'loun].

§10. If we want to learn all about pronunciation, we read books about (or take lessons in) **phonetics**.

§11. Letters and sounds, then, make up *words*, and words make up *sentences*.

§12. From these examples I think you will understand what **syllables** are.

These are words
of one syllable.

CAT

TREE

BOOK

SHAKE

These are words
of two syllables.

HAP- PY

COM- ING

BET- TER

These are three-
syllable words.

WON- DER- FUL


POS- SI- BLE

These are four-
syllable words.

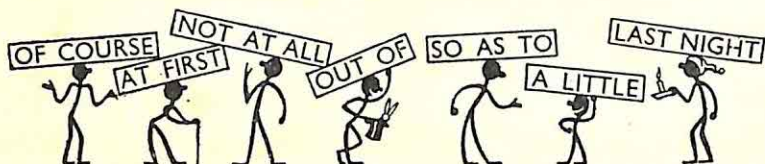
IM- POS- SI- BLE

UN- DER- STAND- ING

§13. ✎ Write out some more words of one, two, three and four syllables. ✎ Can you find any words of five

syllables?  How many syllables are there in that very long word *extraordinarily*?

§14. Here are some things that are very much like words, and are used like words, but they are more than words and yet they are not sentences.



§15. These things are called **collocations**. We learn them by heart, just as we learn words by heart.



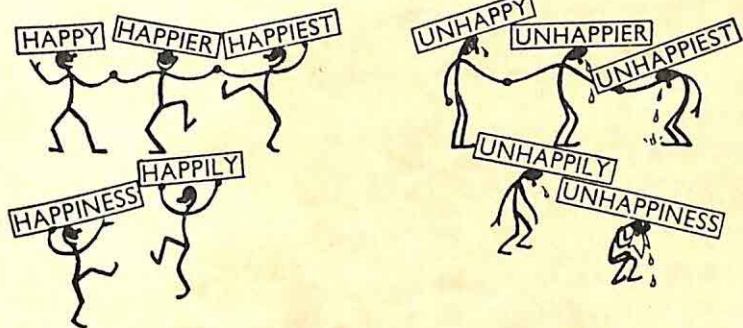
§16. These things are less than words, they are like bits of words broken off. *Un* seems to have been broken off from *undo* or *untidy*; *re* from *rewrite* or *re-open*, *dis* from *disbelieve* or *disorder*. *Ness* seems to have been broken off from the end of *goodness* or *darkness*, *ly* from *slowly* or *quietly*, *y* from *rainy* or *rocky*, *ful* from *careful* or *useful*, *less* from *careless* or *thoughtless*, and *ous* from *famous* or *nervous*.

§17. These things that are less than words are called **affixes**, because they are *affixed* or *fixed* to words by *adding*. If they are fixed to the beginning of words (like *un-*, *re-* or *dis-*) they are called **prefixes** (*pre* is Latin for *before*); if they are fixed to the end of words (like *-ness*, *-ly*, *-y*, etc.) they are called **suffixes** (*sub* or *suf* is Latin for *under* or *after*).

§18. See if you can form some words with the prefixes *im-*, *un-*, *re-* or *dis-*.

§19. Now see if you can form some more words with the suffixes *-ness*, *-ly*, *-y*, *-ful*, etc. Can you find some words with the suffixes *-able* (No ! not the word *table*, because if you take away the *-able*, there will not be any word left !), *-ion* (No ! not *lion*, because *ion* is not a suffix here ; it is part of the word *lion* and you can't cut off the tail of a lion !), *-ant*, or *-ment* ?

§20. This is what we call a *word-family*. There are ten words in it.



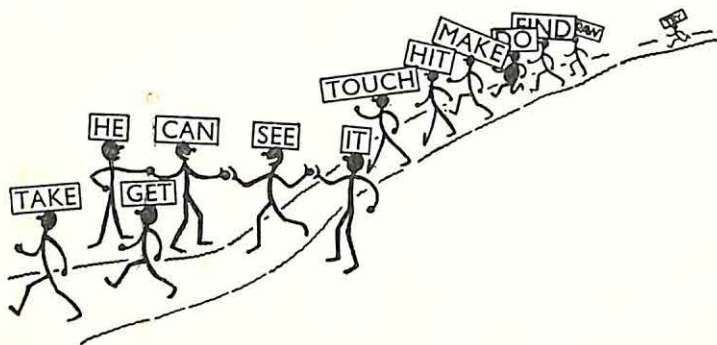
§21. Can you make a word-family of this sort from *kind* ?

§22. This is a different sort of word-family.



§23. Can you make a word-family of this sort from *shake* and *give* ?

§24. This is a sort of game that some words are playing.



We see four of them in a row :

He can see it,

which is a sentence. Before *see* was in the sentence, *get* was there between *can* and *it*; and made up the sentence :

He can get it.

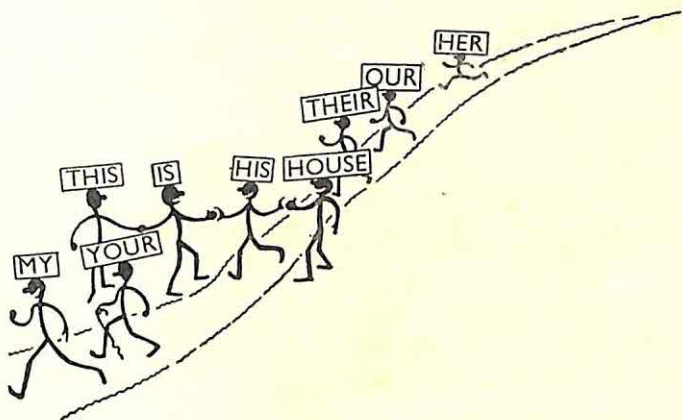
Before *get* was in the sentence, *take* was there. *See* is just going to run along the road after *get* and *take*, while *touch* is getting ready to take the place of *see*; and *hit*, *make* and many more words are coming down the road to join in the game.

§25. The name of the game is *sentence-building*, and the words coming down the road are doing something we call **substitution**, which means "taking the place of something else."

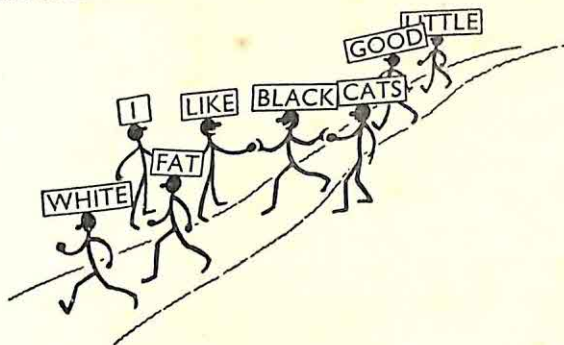
§26. ✎ Write down some of the sentences that you can see the little men making. ✎ Take away the word *He*

and put in its place some other word like it. 🖐️ Now put some other words in its place. 🖐️ Can you think of any other words to put in the place of *hit, take, get, see, touch, make*? 🖐️ Take away the word *it* and put another word in its place.

§27. Here is another game of sentence-building going on :

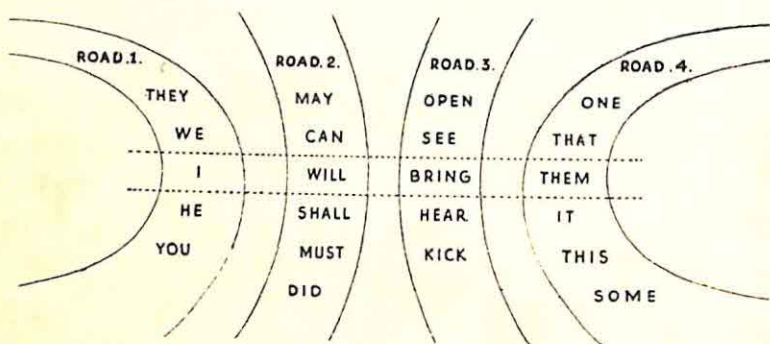


and here is another :



§28. 🖐️ Try to find some more words as substitutes for *white, black, fat, good, little*.

§29. Here is a more exciting game of sentence-building, where there are four roads and four sets of substitution going on :



Every time that four words (one from each road) form a line across, they make a sentence. The sentence that they are making now is the sentence *I will bring them*. There are 22 words on the four roads and they keep running up and down. Do you know that they will make 900 different sentences when they have finished their game ?

§30. *He can open this* is one of them. *We must bring one* is another.

§31. Write down some more of these sentences, please.

§32. Let me tell you this now : *if you understand what substitution means and how it is used in grammar, you will have no difficulty at all in learning even the most difficult parts of grammar !* For grammar, you must remember, is really nothing else than showing how sentences may be built up or taken to pieces.

§33. Somebody once asked a famous artist : 'How do you paint your pictures ?' He answered, 'It is quite

easy ; I only have to choose the right colours and stick them on in the right places ! ’



§34. So it is with English grammar and composition : you only have to choose the right *words* and stick them in the *sentence* in the right places. You will learn which are the right *places* by studying *substitution*. As for choosing the right *words*, you will have to learn about the different *sorts* of *words*. There are about eight chief sorts of words with which we build sentences, and each sort of word is generally called a **part of speech**. The next eight chapters of this book will show you what these parts of speech are and how they are used.

CHAPTER 2

NAMES OF THE THINGS WE CAN TALK ABOUT

§35.

door	Joan	bush	cloth	tooth
water	side	bridges	improvement	ears
horse	workman	room	hat	half
boy	mouse	bit	rooms	feeling
Tom	length	finger	house	Rome
goodness	north	paper	wind	armchair
wife	street	Cairo	David	food
truth	foot	east	silver	wall
beginning	mice	wives	ear	European
England	company	gold	pair	eye
end	Midas	Europe	London	chalk
noise	shoemaker	sorrow	queen	Ruth
school	tree	children	cow	ladies
king	wolf	feet	bushes	thief
help	blackboard	Rupert	top	difficulty
Jim	Dick	wool	Singh	blackbird
crowd	father	cat	bedroom	class
wisdom	child	lady	man	John
church	piece	wood	courage	money
bread	meat	Africa	walk	(the) Thames
day	coat	happiness	France	glass
Ann	joy	churches	stone	set
sunshine	heap	schoolroom	week	face
sheet	sky	pieces	sun	tablecloth
box	hardness	Mary	jump	ox
horses	Egypt	middle	trees	teacher
girl	opening	finger	shoes	Colombo
India	rain	overcoat	inkstand	size
egg	boxes	table	leaf	monkey
snow	mother	night	laziness	Egyptian
badness	rose	anger	south	window
answer	work	Kate	Alexander	beauty

eyes	clothing	distance	river	road
prince	(the) Chinese	thieves	African	loaves
dinner	bridge	push	loaf	geese
ship	collection	Jane	Bill	moonlight
meaning	teeth	Indian	dogs	Aladdin
gunpowder	husband	oxen	woman	beginner
Greece	Napoleon	wolves	fire	(the) Nile
freedom	height	grandfather	princess	waterfall
men	houses	goose	American	duck
army	artist	group	watermill	halves
(the)	America	air	Fatima	armies
Himalayas	sand	pull	rock	Edith
mile	leaves	Rose	month	iron
earth	west	writer	pound	garden
change	Ali	Englishman	friendship	women
Paris	furniture	Madras	Calcutta	machinery
cats	hut	difference	drink	year

§36. Look at all the words you see printed above. What a lot there are ! I am sure that you know all these words and what they mean. Do you think you could think of a lot of words like these, and write them down ? I think you could. There seem to be in this list all sorts of words, a big, big mixture, as if I had written down all the words I could think of.

§37. But if you look at them carefully, you will see that in some way they are all alike ; there is something about them that is the same. It doesn't matter whether it is the word *door* or *sky* or *Tom* or *happiness* or *walk* or *feeling*. There is something about them that has made me put them all in the same list. Now, what is it that makes all these words alike ?

§38. The answer is : *they are all names* ; they are the names of things that we can talk about. When I say ' things ' I mean really *things* and *people* and *places*. Look at any one of the words, and you will see that it stands for something or somebody that we can talk about.

§39. Look at the first word, the word *door*. We can talk about a door, can't we ? We can talk about opening


or shutting a door, what a door is for, what it is made of, what it looks like, and so on. Look at the next word, the word *water*. We can talk about water and different sorts of water. Then there is the word *horse*, and the word *boy*; we can talk about horses and boys, about boys riding on horses or boys falling off horses. Then there comes the word *Tom*; if we know somebody named Tom, we can talk about him, who he is, where he lives and what he does. The next word, *goodness*, seems at first a different sort of word. We can see, touch or point to a door, water, a horse, a boy or Tom, but we cannot see, touch or point to *goodness*. But we can talk about goodness; we can speak about the goodness of something or somebody, just as we can talk about the badness of something or somebody. We can talk about the thing or people for which every one of the words in the list stands.

§40. There are in English (and all other languages) words quite different from those in this list; there are thousands of words standing for things that we can't talk about. We can't talk about a *happy*, can we? We can't talk about an *at*, or about a *come* or about a *this* or about a *my*. We can't even talk about a *you* or a *they*, and if we ever talk about an *and* or a *but* we really mean 'the word *and*' or 'the word *but*.'

§41. Now perhaps it seems to you that it is not very important to know whether a word stands for something we talk about or whether it stands for something that we can't talk about. But when we are learning *grammar* (and we are learning grammar now), it is very, very important to know things like this, because grammar is the study of words, the different sorts of words, what they stand for, what we can do with them, and how we build up sentences with them. And when we start to learn grammar, one of the first things that we must know is

the difference between a word standing for something that we can talk about and all the other sorts of words.

§42. Now in grammar there is a special name given to the words standing for things and people that we can talk about. They are called **nouns**.¹ So we say that the word *door* is a noun, that the word *water* is a noun, that the words *horse* and *boy* and *Tom* are nouns. We must remember, of course, that *a door* is not a noun, but that the word 'door' is a noun. We must not go to Tom and say to him, 'Tom, you are a noun!' because perhaps Tom wouldn't like it. Besides *Tom* is not a noun, but the word 'Tom'—which is rather different!

§43. Here is a little story. There are 190 words in it. Many of these words are nouns. Do you think you can tell me which they are?  First read the story and then call out the nouns one by one, or write them down on a piece of paper, or, if your teacher will let you, you may draw a line with your pencil under each one of them. You will find some of the nouns occurring more than once, but that doesn't matter; if you see the word *bear* (or *bears*) five times, you may count it five times.

THE STORY

§44. Two friends named John and Henry were on a journey. They were walking along the road when they met a bear. John in great fear climbed up a tree and hid himself among the branches, having no thought for his companion but only for himself. Henry, seeing that he had no time to run away, threw himself on the ground, and pretended to be dead, for people had told him that bears never touch a dead body. The bear came up to his head, smelling his nose and ears and heart, but the man held his breath; and the animal, supposing

¹ The word *noun* really means *name*, but people who teach grammar and write books about grammar always say *noun*, and not *name*, so we had better do the same as they do and call these words *nouns*.

him to be dead, walked away. When the bear was out of sight the other man came down from the tree and asked a question. 'What was it,' he asked, 'that the bear said to you, for I noticed that he put his mouth very close to your ear?' 'Well,' was the answer, 'what he said was no great secret; he only told me never again to keep company with those who, when there is danger, take care of their own safety without giving any help to their friends.'

§45. Have you finished? Well, how many nouns did you find? And which were they?

§46. You may now take any story from your reading book or any other book and pick out the nouns in it.

§47. You may take a piece of paper and write down twenty or thirty nouns, and your teacher will tell you whether you have written any words that are not nouns.

PROPER AND COMMON NOUNS

§48. The next thing we have to do is to study different sorts of nouns.

§49. First you will notice that there are two very different sorts:

- (1) Nouns which are the names which have been given to people and places, such as *Tom* or *England*. In grammar these are called **proper nouns**;
- (2) Nouns other than these; they are called **common nouns**.

§50. You will find it quite easy to see the difference. For one thing, proper nouns always start with a capital letter, and the others with a small letter (except, of course, at the beginning of a sentence). Another thing is that you cannot use such words as *a*, *an* or *the* before proper nouns. We can say *I saw a boy*, but not *I saw a*

Tom. We can say *the country* or *the town*, but not *the England* or *the London*.¹

§51. In the big list of words at the beginning of this chapter you will find forty-seven proper nouns. Which are they?

§52. Write down ten or twenty proper nouns, including your name, the names of your friends, the name of the place in which you live, and the names of some well-known towns and countries.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL NOUNS

§53. Look at these two lists :

<i>Tree, house, ear, cat, dog,</i>	<i>Trees, houses, ears, cats,</i>
<i>finger, church, box, bush, leaf,</i>	<i>dogs, fingers, churches, boxes,</i>
<i>thief, lady, child, mouse, ox.</i>	<i>bushes, leaves, thieves, ladies,</i>
	<i>children, mice, oxen.</i>

§54. What is the difference between the one on the left and the one on the right? That's quite easy: each word on the left stands for one single thing. *Tree* means *one tree*, *house* means *one house*. But each word on the right stands for two or more things. *Trees* mean *two, three* or more things called *tree*. When we say *houses* we mean not *one house* but more, perhaps hundreds of houses, perhaps all the houses in the world.


§55. The nouns in the left-hand list (and all other nouns like them) are called **singular nouns** (because they stand for one *single* thing); the others (and all other nouns like them) are called **plural nouns**. The word *plural* comes from a Latin word meaning *more*.

§56. When we are speaking or writing English, or other languages, we have to be careful about singular and plural


¹ Or very seldom or exceptionally. We do indeed put *the* before the names of many rivers and mountains.

nouns. It would look very funny if we wrote : ' I have one cats,' or ' There are many house in this town.' You will see later, too, that we say or write *this house*, but *these houses* ; *that tree*, but *those trees*.


§57. Nearly all English plural nouns have *s* at the end. If you want to turn words like *cat*, *dog* or *finger* into plural nouns, you simply add *s* (*cats*, *dogs*, *fingers*). But in some cases we have to add *es*—see *churches*, *boxes*, *bushes*, §53 above. This is because of the pronunciation. It would sound funny if we were to say *church* or *box* with just an *s* at the end. Try it and see how funny it sounds, and how funny the words look : *churchs*, *boxs* !

§58.  Now change these singular nouns into plural nouns by writing *s* or *es* at the end of each word.

1. apple. 2. branch. 3. house. 4. noise. 5. clock.
6. mass. 7. piece. 8. cup. 9. brush. 10. girl. 11. message.
12. voice. 13. bit. 14. wish. 15. month. 16. nose.
17. book. 18. inch. 19. hand. 20. office. 21. bridge.

§59.  After that, read out to your teacher the twenty-one words that you have written. You will notice that sometimes you must pronounce the *s* or *es* with a real *s*-sound, sometimes with a *z*-sound, and sometimes you must pronounce it like *iz*.


§60. You will notice, too, that if the singular noun ends in *f* or *fe* (*leaf*, *thief*, *wife*), we generally change the *f* or *fe* into *ves* (*leaves*, *thieves*, *wives*). We do not do this to all nouns ending in *f* ; the plural of the word *roof*, for instance, is formed by adding *s* and not by changing the *f* into *ves*.

§61. Here are some singular nouns.  Write them in their plural form.


1. loaf. 2. proof. 3. half. 4. chief. 5. grief. 6. knife.
7. wolf. 8. stuff. 9. self. 10. life. 11. roof. 12. shelf.


Now read them out to your teacher.


§62. There is that curious plural form, too, in which *y* is changed into *ies*, like *lady—ladies*, *army—armies*. But this is only when a consonant (*b, d, g, k, l*, etc.) comes before the *y*, not when a vowel (*a, e, i, o, u*) comes before it. So that *day* is *days* and *boy* is *boys*, and *key* is *keys* in the plural.


§63.  Change these singular nouns into plural nouns, please, and then read them out to your teacher.

1. donkey. 2. baby. 3. country. 4. day. 5. family.
6. body. 7. monkey. 8. way. 9. story. 10. key. 11. fairy.
12. boy.

§64. Now there are a few nouns that have very curious plural forms. Words like *child*, *foot*, *tooth*, *goose* or *mouse* do not form the plural with *s* or *es* (try it and see how funny it sounds and looks!). The plural of *child* is *children*, and as for the plural form of *foot*, *tooth*, *goose*, *mouse*, *ox*,  I will leave it to you to tell me what they are—but don't talk to me about *foots* or *tooths* or *gooses* or *mouses*!

§65.  Now look at the big list of nouns at the beginning of the chapter and write down all the plural nouns you can see in it. If you find them all, there will be thirty-two (unless I have counted them wrongly!).

§66.  Then take these thirty-two words and arrange them in groups, together with their singular forms; first those that are formed by adding *s* alone, then those formed by adding *es*, then those with *ves* at the end, then those with *ies*, and last of all the irregular forms (*mouse—mice*, etc.).

§67.  Then read out to your teacher these lists that you have made, and be careful about the pronunciation.

§68. In the case of some nouns the singular and plural forms are the same. The plural of *sheep* is *sheep*, and the

plural of *deer* is *deer* (I saw three sheep and two deer). The plural of *fish* is generally *fish* (but when they are living and swimming about we generally call them *fishes*).

§69. Then there is the funny case of *penny*. When we speak of a price we use the plural *pence* ('That costs two-pence or threepence'), we speak of *pounds, shillings and pence*; but when we speak of the coins themselves we say *pennies*. Sometimes you may hear people say: 'I can't give you a sixpence (a silver coin half the size of a shilling), but I can give you six pennies.'

§70. In a very few cases we find a plural noun without any singular! *People* is one of them; it is really a sort of plural of *man* or *person*.

§71. Some nouns can't have any plural at all. That is when they stand for things that can't be counted. We can count books, boxes, trees, doors, windows, houses, people and animals. But we can't count water or snow or paper or fire or food or air or sand, or things like that. If somebody said to us 'Look at that water and count it,' or 'Count that air, please,' or 'How many is there of this fire?' we should laugh. If anybody asked for some breads, or said 'Look at the snows,' we should laugh. We can count *drops* or *glasses* of water, *loaves* of bread, *sheets* or *pieces* of paper, *grains* of sand, *ears* of corn, *pieces* of chalk, etc., but we cannot count the things themselves.

§72. Nouns standing for things that we can count are called **countables**, and those standing for things that we can't count are called **uncountables**.¹


§73. You will notice that before plural countable nouns we can put words like *many* or *few*, and before uncountable

¹ Some people call these things by other names, but as *countable* and *uncountable* are easy to understand and remember, we will call them by these names.

nouns we can put words like *much* or *little*. Let us compare :

COUNTABLE
many books
how many fingers ?
few trees
a few dogs
not a great many houses

UNCOUNTABLE
much water
how much sand ?
little food
a little money
not very much paper

§74.  Now write down a list of some of the things we cannot count. Or if you can't think of any, point out which of the following things cannot be counted.

Meat (Do you say *many meat* or *much meat* ?), *ship* (Do you say *many ships* or *much ships* ?), *gold* (Can we say *I have three golds*, or *must* we say, *I have three pieces of gold* ?), *grass*, *bush*, *wool*, *day*, *street*, *rain*, *wind*, *goodness*, *eye*, *apple*, *machine*, *machinery*, *dirt*, *furniture*, *clothing*, *hat*, *coal*, *silver*, *garden*, *mud*, *cow*, *teacher*, *steam*, *oil*, *cup*, *butter*.

§75. What about *glass* ? Well, if this means something we drink out of, we can say *glasses* and count them ; but if we are speaking about the stuff that windows are made of, we can't count it. If *iron* means a thing that we make clothes smooth with, we can count such things and call them *irons* ; but we can't count the metal that they are made of. If by *wood* we mean the stuff that tables and chairs are made of, we cannot count it, but if *wood* means *place where there are trees*, we can count them. We can say *There are many woods and forests in Europe*. If the word *stone* means a little piece of stone that boys often throw, we can say *stones* and count them, but we can't count the stuff called *stone*. We cannot count the stuff called *rock*, but when *rock* means *pieces of rock* we call them *rocks* and can count them.

§76. When you come to learn about the words *a*, *some* and *any* you will find it very important indeed to

know all about countable and uncountable nouns. Many people who don't know English very well are always making mistakes because they don't know which nouns stand for things you can count, and which do not. If you do the following little exercise, you will see better what I mean.

§77. ✎ Copy out these sentences, putting *a* (or *an*) before each singular countable noun and putting nothing at all before each plural countable noun and each uncountable noun. *Example: This is a book. These are books. This is water.*

1. This is — box. 2. These are — boxes. 3. This is — sand. 4. — horse is — animal. 5. — table is made of — wood. 6. — rose is — flower. 7. — horses are — animals. 8. — wool is soft. 9. I want to buy — hat. 10. — rain falls from the sky. 11. We breathe — air. 12. — shoe is made of — leather. 13. — fire is hot. 14. — roses are beautiful. 15. — chalk is white. 16. — duck is — bird. 17. — bridges are useful. 18. We sit on — chairs. 19. — stone is hard. 20. These are — bushes.

§78. Now you see what is meant by the words *singular*, *plural*, *countable* and *uncountable*, and how important it is to learn about them.

DERIVED NOUNS

§79. Look at these words :

Happiness, freedom, difficulty, height, improvement, beginning, teacher, artist.

§80. What you may notice about them is that they are formed from other words that are not nouns at all. *Happiness*, for instance, is formed from *happy*, and *freedom* from *free*. Such words as these are called **derived nouns**; some people call them **noun derivatives**.

From what words are *difficulty*, *height*, *improvement*, *beginning*, *teacher* and *artist* formed ?

§81. Make (or 'derive,' as we say) nouns from the following words :

Write, *long*, *govern*, *mean*, *good*, *friend*, *black*, *deep*, *lazy*, *true*, *hungry*, *wise*, *different*, *add*, *amuse*, *fail*, *pay*, *sign*, *meet*, *brave*, *pray*, *strong*, *kind*.

NOUNS AND VERBS

§82. Some nouns have just the same form and meaning as those words that we shall study later called verbs.¹ Note these examples :

AS NOUNS

I give him some *help*.
Give me an *answer*.
Let us go for a *walk*.
I want a *drink*.

AS VERBS

I *help* him.
Answer me.
Let us *walk*.
I want to *drink* something.

§83. In the following sentences each word printed in thick type is a verb.

1. I want to **change** it. 2. I **work** every day. 3. **Jump** over the wall. 4. **Pull** this stick. 5. It is going to **rain**. 6. It is time to **dress**. 7. I want to **talk** to you. 8. We must wash it. 9. Don't **quarrel**. 10. I cut my finger.

§84. Make sentences in which each of these verbs is used as a noun. For instance, for sentence 1 you may say *This is a great change*, or *I did not see any change*. For the second sentence you may say *Every day I do some work*, or *Some people do not like work*, and so on.


PARTITIVE NOUNS

§85. When we were talking about uncountable nouns, we noticed that we can say *a sheet of paper*, *a piece of*

¹ See Chapter 5.

chalk, etc. Now these words *sheet* and *piece* are sometimes called **partitive** nouns, because each one means really a *part* of something.



§86. Here are some more partitive nouns: *Grain, heap, bit, collection, pound, pair, set, number, quantity, army, parcel, lot, group, party, mass, handful, crowd, packet, strip, sheet, ear.*

§87.  Put a suitable partitive noun in the place of each of the following dashes :

1. A — of earth. 2. A — of people. 3. A — of sand.
4. A — of cloth. 5. A — of teeth. 6. A — of shoes.
7. A — of butter. 8. A — of foreign stamps. 9. A — of paper.
10. A — of stone. 11. A — of old iron. 12. A — of houses.
13. A — of rock. 14. A — of sugar. 15. A — of travellers.
16. A — of books. 17. A — of glass. 18. A — of corn.
19. An — of soldiers. 20. A great — of people.

COMPOUND NOUNS

§88. Some nouns are made up of two words joined together. Here are a few: *sunshine* [*sun* and *shine*], *workman* [*work* and *man*], *blackboard*, *schoolroom*, *ink-stand*. We call these **compound** nouns because they are compounded (or made up) of two words.

§89. In the big list of nouns at the beginning of this chapter there are about seventeen of these.  Go over the list and pick them out.  Then write down from ten to twenty more, if you can think of so many. The following questions will help you.

What do we call : (1) a sort of bird that is always black ? (2) a thing that children play with ? (3) a box that has matches in it ? (4) a pot in which we make tea ? (5) a ball made of snow ? (6) a man who sells books ? (7) a man who makes watches ? (8) paper that we stick on a

wall ? (9) a piece of ground in which we play ? (10) a ball that we kick with our feet ?

NOUNS THAT TELL US WHAT THINGS ARE LIKE

§90. In the list of compound nouns above you will see that generally the first part of the word tells us what the second part of the word is like, or what sort of thing it is. When we say *schoolroom* we mean *the sort of room that we find in schools* ; *snowball* means *that sort of ball that is made of snow*. So a noun may be used to tell us something about another noun. Here are some more examples, only you will see that they are here written as two separate words and not two words run together.

Church bell, horse race, ice cream, night train, water wheel, word list, picture book, glass door, steel knife.

§91. ✎ Now take a noun from the left-hand side and use it to describe one of the words on the right-hand side in such a way as to make sense. Do not write, for instance, *letter match* or *walking engine*, because that would not make sense.

flower, letter, safety, steam,
town, writing, picture, glass,
apple, walking, sand, money,
police, railway, garden.

paper, tree, painter, station,
box, engine, storm, dish,
wall, garden, match, stick,
hall, officer, lender.

§92. That is about all that you need know about nouns—words standing for things that we talk about. ✎ What I should like you to do now is to look again at the big list at the beginning of the chapter, and to write after each one what sort of noun it is, such as *proper, plural, uncountable, derived, compound*. ✎ Or if you like you may take all the words and sort them out, putting together all the proper nouns, the plural nouns, etc.

CHAPTER 3

WORDS THAT TELL US WHICH, WHOSE, AND HOW MUCH

§93. In Chapter 2 we learnt very much about *nouns*, words standing for things that we talk about. But more often than not, when we use a noun we have to put in front of it some word telling us something about it, such as which thing it is, whose it is or how much of it there is. Look at the following sentences and note how strange they look and sound without words of this kind before the nouns :

Cat is animal. This is tree. Send me book. Sun is in sky. Look at rain. Man came morning and brought eggs.

§94. These sentences are all wrong, except perhaps when we are saying them in a telegram, for when we send telegrams we like to use as few words as possible ! We feel that the sentences ought to be *A cat is an animal. This is a (or the) tree. Send me the (or that, or a or my) book. The sun is in the sky. A (or The) man came this morning and brought me some eggs.*

§95. Now people who write about or teach grammar give all sorts of names to the little words like *a, the, that, my, some*, and later you may have to learn these names. But for the present it will be enough for us to call them **determinatives**, that is to say, words that determine or fix the nouns that follow them. If we say simply *Send*

me book (as in a telegram), we have to leave it to the other person to guess which, or whose, book we want. So that in ordinary English we have to 'determine' the word *book* by putting in front of it a 'determinative' such as *the, a, my, your, or another, or one.*

§96. Here is a list of some of the most important and useful determinative words used in English. Look at them well and note anything that seems curious about any of them.

this	your	(the) same	(the) next
a	any	(a) few	those
some	two	that	our
every	yours	mine	(the) fourth
one	more	another	(the) fewest
my	a hundred	my own	ours
the	(the) next	both	a great deal (of)
a lot (of)	his	(a) little	neither
other	three	hers	(the) others
all	many	none (of)	their
(the) first	one's	four	some more
these	several	(the) most	(the) least
an	hundreds (of)	its	theirs
such	John's	each	the whole of
much	her	(the) third	five
either	(the) second	less	any more
plenty (of)	no	fewer	six
			(the) last

§97. In order to see and to understand exactly when and how these determinatives are used, we will first do this little exercise. Here are some sentences; in each of them there is one or more nouns. In front of each noun there is a dash. — Now if you think that the noun is incomplete without a determinative or sounds funny as it stands, put in place of the dash one of the words:

a, an, the, this, that, my or your,

but if you think that the noun does not need any of these words, put nothing in place of the dash.

1. Look at — book.
2. Look at — Tom.
3. — mountain

is high. 4. — London is in — England. 5. Take — piece. 6. Give me — money. 7. This is — apple. 8. — Mary is not here. 9. Here are — books. 10. — tree is high but — tree is not high. 11. — Egypt is — country. 12. — horse is — animal. 13. — John, Mary and — Jane lived in — London. 14. — coat is quite wet. 15. Where is — letter ? 16. Do you live in — country ?

§98. Now let us see some of the things that this exercise shows us. In sentence 1 we have to put a determinative because it does not sound right without one ; we can put *a, the, this, that, my* or *your*. We cannot put *an* because the word *book* does not begin with *a, e, i, o, or u*.

§99. In sentence 2 we see at once that the noun *Tom* does not need any determinative word (*Look at the Tom* or *Look at a Tom* would make very funny sentences, wouldn't they ?), so we put nothing at all and leave the sentence as it is.

§100. In sentence 3 we had better put *a* in place of the dash, but we could put *the, this* or *that*.

§101. In sentence 4 we put nothing because we know that *the London* or *an England* sounds wrong.

§102. In sentence 7 we cannot put *a*. You know why.

§103. If in sentence 10 we put *a* or *the*, it would not make sense. *This* and *that* seem to be the best words here.

§104. In sentence 16 we had better put *the* before *country*, but we could put *this* or *that*. If we put *a, my* or *your*, the sentence would be correct, but in any case we cannot leave the word *country* without any determinative in front of it.

§105. What we have noticed particularly is that names of people or places must not have any determinative word in front of them, and that other nouns must. So

we can make the rule : Put no determinatives in front of proper nouns.¹

* * *

§106. The most important words in the list above are *a* and *the*, partly because they occur in sentences more often than any others and partly because they are so difficult to use correctly. What you have to remember is that *a*, *the*, *some*, *any*, and other words like these have two or more meanings and that the grammar of these words depends very much on their meanings.

§107. Here are a few rules that may help you to understand and use these words properly :

THE

§108. Rule 1.—*The* is nearly always put before words like *sun*, *moon*, *sky*, *world*, *earth*, *sea*, *north*, *south*, to show that we mean *the only one that there is*. For the same reason we generally put *the* before words like *most*, *best*, *highest* or *largest*.

§109. Rule 2.—*The* is put before a word to show that we mean : *the one you know about*, or *I need not tell you which one because you can guess*.

§110. Thus when we say to somebody 'Open the door,' or 'Look at the cat,' or 'Give me the key,' the other person does not usually say 'Which door?' 'Which cat?' or 'Which key?' He knows or guesses that we mean *the door of the room*, *our cat*, or *the cat belonging to the house*, and *the key that you know I want*.

§111. Rule 3.—*The* is put before a word to show that we mean *this*, *the one I spoke about just now*, *the one in*

¹ There are, however, some proper nouns before which we must put *the*; these are generally the names of rivers and mountains, for we say *the Nile* and *the Alps*.

question, etc. This use of *the* occurs very often in stories. We begin our story by mentioning a man, a donkey, or a tree, and as we go on with the story we say *the* man (*the* donkey, *the* tree). In cases of this sort we often use *this* instead of *the*.

§112. Thus we may begin a story by saying: 'Once there was *a* man,' and then say '*The* man lived in a forest' (or '*This* man lived in a forest').

§113. Rule 4.—Sometimes we use *the* in the sense of *all the things there are of this sort*.

§114. Thus when we say 'Edison invented the gramophone,' we do not mean *the gramophone that is in this room*, or *the gramophone that I am speaking about*, but *the invention called a gramophone*, which means really *every gramophone*. Thus when we write 'The horse is a useful animal,'¹ we mean *All horses* (or *Horses in general*) are useful animals.

A (OR AN)²

§115. Rule 5.—We generally say *a* (or *an*) when we mean *one*.

§116. Thus when we say 'I can see a tree,' or 'Give me an apple,' we really mean *one tree* or *one apple*.

§117. Rule 6.—*A* generally means *one of these things that we call, any one of those things that are called, it doesn't matter which one*.

§118. Thus when we say 'This is a tree,' we mean *this is one of those things that people call 'trees,' or there are millions and millions of trees in the world, and this is one of them*. When we say 'An apple is good to eat,' we do not

¹ But we more usually write or say 'Horses are useful animals.'

² *An*, when the next word begins with *a e i o* or *u*. But when *u* is pronounced like *you* (as in such words as *use*), we say *a* and not *an*. We say *A useful thing*.

mean *one apple is good to eat*, but *all apples are good to eat*, or *every one of those things that we call apples is a thing that it is good to eat*. When in a story we speak of something for the first time we generally put *a* in front of the name of the thing.

§119. The following little story will show you clearly how these rules help us to use *the* and *a* correctly.

In many parts of *the world*¹ there are places called deserts. In *a desert*² we find sand and stones, but very few trees, and it is rare to find water or things to eat. In *the north*³ of Africa and in parts of Asia there are people called Arabs. *An Arab*⁴ once lost his way in *a desert*⁵. He had no food and was nearly dying. Then he saw *a pool*⁶ of water. *The Arab*⁷ went up to *the pool*⁸, but found there was no water in it. Just then he saw *a bag*⁹ lying on *the sand*¹⁰. He thought that perhaps *the bag*¹¹ had food in it, and water too. He began to feel it with his hands. He felt that it was filled with little round things, and cried out, 'I hope they are dates or nuts.' When he opened *the bag*¹² he found that they were jewels, which are no good to *a hungry man*¹³. *The poor Arab*¹⁴ fell on *the sand*¹⁵ and died of hunger. From this story we may form *the moral*¹⁶: *The jewel*¹⁷ may be *the most*¹⁸ valueless of things.

§120. Now read the following eighteen notes carefully.

¹ Why do we say '*the world*'? Because we generally put *the* before words like *world*. See Rule 1.

² Why do we say '*a desert*'? Because we mean *a place called a desert*, or *every one of those places that people call deserts*. See Rule 6.

³ Why do we say '*the north*'? Because we generally put *the* before words like this. See Rule 1.

⁴ Why do we say '*an Arab*'? Because we mean *one of those men called Arabs*. We are speaking about him for the first time. See

Rule 6, and note that we put *an* instead of *a* when the next word begins with a vowel.

⁵ Why do we say '*a* desert'? Because we mean *a place called a desert*, or *one of those places that people call deserts*. We are speaking about this desert for the first time. See Rule 6.

⁶ Why do we say '*a* pool'? Because we mean *one pool*. See Rule 5. Or because we mean *one of those things called pools*. We are speaking about this pool for the first time. See Rule 6.

⁷ Why do we say '*the* Arab'? Because we mean *the Arab I spoke about just now*, or *the Arab in question*. Instead of saying *the Arab* we could say *this Arab*. See Rule 3.

⁸ Why do we say '*the* pool'? For the same reason as we said above *the Arab*. See Rule 3.

⁹ Why do we say '*a* bag'? Because we mean *one bag*. See Rule 5. Or because we mean *one of those things called bags*. We are speaking about this bag for the first time. See Rule 6.

¹⁰ Why do we say '*the* sand'? Because we mean *the sand you know about*, or *we need not tell you which sand because you know already*. See Rule 2.

^{11, 12} Why do we say '*the* bag'? For the same reason as we said above *the Arab* and *the pool*. We mean *the bag we spoke about just now*.

¹³ Why do we say '*a* hungry man'? Because we mean *one of those people that we call hungry men*, *it doesn't matter which hungry man*, or *all hungry men*. See Rule 6. Here *a* does not mean *one*. Instead of saying '*Jewels are no good to a hungry man*,' we could say '*Jewels are no good to hungry men*.'


¹⁴ Why do we say '*the* poor Arab'? See example 7, above, and Rule 3.

¹⁵ Why do we say '*the* sand'? See example 10, above, and Rule 2.

¹⁶ Why do we say '*the* moral'? Because *the* may often be used instead of *this*. See Rule 3.


¹⁷ Why do we say '*the* jewel'? Because *the* may stand for *every jewel*. See Rule 4. But it would be just as correct to say '*a* jewel' in this case. See Rule 6.

¹⁸ Why do we say '*the* most valueless'? Because we nearly always put *the* before words like *most*. See Rule 1.

§121.  Now to see how well you have understood these rules, you may put *the* or *a* (or *an*) in place of the dashes in the following sentences.

1. Once there was — king called Alfred. 2. When — king saw this, he began to laugh. 3. This is — picture. It is — picture of — mountain. It is — picture of — highest mountain in — world. 4. — microscope was invented a long

time ago. 5. Please give him — piece of bread. 6. What is that animal called ? It is called — camel. 7. Please shut — window. 8. I can see — man coming along — road.

§122.  You may now take any story in your reading book, point out the words *a* and *the*, and explain why they are used.

§123. In grammar the word *a* (or *an*) is called the **indefinite article** and *the* the **definite article**.

§124. There are other words rather like the definite and indefinite articles. *This* and *that* are in some ways very much like *the* ; and *some*, *any*, *no*, *all* are very much like *a* (or *an*). If you want to see many examples of these words you had better look at them in the *Grammar of English Words*. Among other things you will note that *this* and *that* have plural forms, like nouns. We say *this tree*, but *these trees* ; we say *that hill*, but *those hills*. You will see, too, what the real differences are between *some* and *any* and what their meanings are. You will see, too, that *no* means *not a* or *not any*.

SOME, ANY, NO AND []

§125. The word *the*, as you know, may be used before singular nouns, plural nouns and uncountable nouns. Thus we say :

the tree

the trees

the sand

but of course we cannot use *a*¹ before plural and uncountable nouns, because *a* really means *one*. What we very often do in such cases is to use *some* or *any* in place of *a*, or to use *not any* or *no* in place of *not a*.


¹ From now onwards when I say ' *a* ' I shall mean ' *a* or *an* . '

§126. The following sentences will show what I mean :

BEFORE SINGULAR COUNTABLE NOUNS	BEFORE PLURAL NOUNS	BEFORE UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS
I saw a tree.	I saw some trees.	I saw some sand.
Give me an apple.	Give me some apples.	Give me some water.
Have you a knife ?	Have you any knives ?	Have you any wool ?
I have not a cat.	{ I have not any cats. I have no cats.	I have not any money. I have no money.


§127. There is another way of expressing the *indefinite article* (as it is called) with plurals and uncountables, and that is : to put nothing at all in front of the noun ! By putting nothing at all in front of a plural or uncountable noun we give an indefinite meaning to it. In the following examples, to show the places where we put nothing at all I shall make the mark [].

BEFORE SINGULAR COUNTABLE NOUNS	BEFORE PLURAL NOUNS	BEFORE UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS
This is a tree.	These are [] trees.	This is [] water.
A mountain is high.	[] Mountains are high.	[] Snow is white.
A bird sings.	[] Birds sing.	[] Fire burns.

§128. Here is a little exercise. Each of these sentences has the word *a* and a singular countable noun in it.  Change the noun into the plural and change the *a* into *some* or *any*, or put nothing at all in front of the noun, according to what you think sounds and seems right.

1. A table is made of wood. 2. Give me an egg. 3. I want a stamp. 4. We have not a knife. 5. A ship goes on water. 6. That is a cloud. 7. Can you see a path ? 8. A cat catches mice. 9. He showed me a picture. 10. Is that a dog ?

§129. You see, then, that sometimes *a* is replaced by *some* or *any*, and that sometimes it is replaced by nothing at all, and that this ' nothing at all ' expresses indefiniteness.

§130. Here is another exercise. Here are some sentences with uncountable nouns in them. Before each of these nouns there is a dash.  Now replace the dash


either by *some* or *any*, or else put nothing at all in place of the dash, according to what you think sounds and seems right.


1. This is — wool. 2. Give me — water. 3. Is that — sand ? 4. Bring me — sand. 5. I don't like — coffee. 6. — bread is made from — corn. 7. — rain falls from the sky. 8. Have you — sugar ? 9. We use — soap when we wash. 10. Get — grass to give to the horse.

HOW MANY ? AND HOW MUCH ?

§131. Somebody asks 'How many books (or cats or apples) have you ?' What do we answer ? Well, we can answer 'I have *some* books,' or 'I have *no* books,' but we generally answer with words like *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *a hundred*, *many*, *several*, or *a few*. These words are **determinatives of number**. By using them we tell people *how many* things or people there are.

§132. Somebody asks us 'How much water (or sand or cloth) have you ?' But as we cannot count these things, we have to answer *a little*, *a lot*, *much*, *plenty*, or with expressions such as *two pounds* or *three yards* or *five pounds*. These words are **determinatives of quantity**. By using them we tell people *how much* of anything we have or there is.

§133.  Look at the list of determinatives in §96 and say which of them can be used to answer the question *how many* ? and which can be used to answer the question *how much* ?

§134.  Put suitable determinatives telling us how much or how many in the place of each dash. You may use one word or more than one word.

1. Give me — stamps, please. 2. I saw — cows in the field. 3. There isn't — water here. 4. I have — flowers

than you. 5. He has — money. 6. How — horses can you see in that field ? 7. You have only — pieces. 8. There is not — sand here. 9. I want only — milk. 10. There are — words that I do not understand.

WHOSE IS IT ?

§135. Somebody asks us ‘Whose hat is this ?’ What do we answer ? We answer *It is my hat*, or *It is your hat*, or *It is John’s hat*. The words *my* and *your*, as well as *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, and *their*, are determinatives, and have the same place in the sentence as *the*, *a* and the others that we have spoken about. As these words tell us who possess things (that is to say, to whom things belong) they are called **possessive determinatives**. The word *John’s*, as well as *Mary’s*, *Tom’s*, or, in fact, most words ending in *’s*, may also be called possessive determinatives. But if they are words like *man’s*, *boy’s* or *teacher’s*, we must put *the* or *a* or some other determinative in front of them, and say *the man’s hat*, *this boy’s bicycle* or *my teacher’s house*.

TWO WAYS OF USING DETERMINATIVES

§136. Determinatives, as I have said, are put in front of nouns to tell us something about the things for which the nouns stand.

§137. But many determinatives can be used alone, without any noun after them at all. In this case they stand *in the place of nouns*. If someone says to us ‘I want some milk,’ we can answer, saying, ‘Here is some milk,’ or ‘I will give you some milk,’ but we generally say simply ‘Here is some,’ or ‘I will give you some.’ In this case we make the determinative *some* stand in the place of *some milk*. Look at the following pairs of sentences. Those on the left contain determinatives put before nouns

and those on the right contain determinatives standing in place of the nouns.¹

NOUN MODIFIERS

Have you **any** wool?
Look at **this** picture.
That word isn't right.
Take one of **each** sort.
I don't like **either** colour.
Then he took **another** piece.
That is the **same** thing.
Give me a **little** water.
I can see **two** trees.
I haven't **much** money.
More butter, please.

NOUN SUBSTITUTES

No, I haven't **any**.
Look at **this**.
That isn't right.
Take one of **each**.
I don't like **either**.
Then he took **another**.
That is **the same**.
Give me a **little**.
I can see **two**.
I haven't **much**.
More, please.

TWO DETERMINATIVES PUT TOGETHER


§138. Sometimes a determinative is not complete until we put another determinative beside it. We saw just now, for instance, that we do not say *teacher's book* but *the teacher's book* or *my teacher's book*. We do not say *Give me other book* but *Give me the other book* or *Give me another book* (*an* and *other* are always written as one word). We can say *some bread* and *more bread*, and we can also say *some more bread*; in this case *some more* feels like one single word. We may call such combinations **compound determinatives** if we want a name for them.

§139. It is interesting to note the difference between the simple determinatives *little* and *few* and the compound determinatives *a little* and *a few*. Supposing somebody says 'There is little hope.' This has quite a different meaning from 'There is *a little* hope,' and 'He has few friends' is very different in meaning from 'He has *a few* friends.'

¹ Some grammarians call the former sort *adjectives* and the latter *pronouns*, but as these words *adjective* and *pronoun* mean other and rather different sorts of words, we will call them *noun modifiers* and *noun substitutes*.


§140. Many compound determinatives end with the word *of* when they are used to modify nouns, but we take away the *of* when they are used as noun substitutes. Here are some examples :

He had a lot of money.	He had a lot.
There was a great deal of trouble.	There was a great deal.
I can't see the whole of the picture.	I can't see the whole.
Hundreds of people came.	Hundreds came.
I have plenty of food.	I have plenty.

§141.  Now let us put in the place of each of these dashes a suitable word.

1. Please give me —. 2. There are — few — on the table.
3. I saw a great — people there. 4. There were many hundreds — in the wood. 5. We had a lot —. 6. Have you any — bread ? 7. That is John's —. 8. I have plenty —. 9. Take — little more. 10. Don't take this — ; take the other —.

MY AND MINE

§142.  There are six determinatives that are spelt and pronounced differently according to whether we use them as **modifiers** of nouns or as **noun substitutes**. Let us see and compare these two forms :


AS MODIFIERS OF NOUNS

This is my hat.
Is this your book ?
She took her book.
Which is our train ?
I know their house.
There is no water.

AS NOUN SUBSTITUTES

This is mine.
Is this yours ?
She took hers.
Which is ours ?
I know theirs.
There is none.

The word *his* is used both as a modifier and as a noun substitute.

§143.  Change each of the following sentences in such a way as to use *my*, *your*, etc., instead of *mine*, *yours*, etc.

1. Where is ours? 2. This is not hers. 3. I don't see his.
4. I could find none. 5. Mine is too heavy. 6. Theirs are not here. 7. Is this yours or mine? 8. There is none left.
9. Ours are rather large. 10. Where did you see mine?

FIRST, SECOND, THIRD, NEXT, LAST

§144. There is one more sort of determinative that you should know about. Here are some of them printed in thick type.

This is the **first** month of the year.

Take the **second** turning on the left.

Go as far as the **third** house.

He lives in the **next** street.

This is the **last** day of the week.

§145. These are called by grammarians **ordinal** **determinatives**, because they are words that show us in what *order* things are put or occur. We nearly always have to put the word *the* in front of them. With the exception of the two words *next* and *last* these correspond to the numbers *one*, *two*, *three*, etc., which are called **cardinal** numbers.

CARDINAL NUMBERS

one (1)

two (2)

three (3)

four (4)

five (5)

and so on up to

twenty (20)

twenty-one (21)

and so on for the rest of the numbers.

ORDINAL NUMBERS

the first (the 1st)

the second (the 2nd)

the third (the 3rd)

the fourth (the 4th)

the fifth (the 5th)

the twentieth (the 20th)

the twenty-first (the 21st)

§146. ✎ Write out in words (not figures) the ordinal numbers corresponding to 10, 15, 30, 9, 56, 100, 161, 345.


* * *

§147. Let us take the story of the Arab and the Jewel once again and arrange it in such a way as to see which determinatives are used in it. We will put the determinatives one under the other between two upright lines.

In	many	parts
of	the	world
there are	[]	places
called	[]	deserts.
In	a	desert
we find	[]	sand
and	[]	stones,
but very	few	trees, and it is
rare to find	[]	water
or	[]	things to eat.
In	the	north of Africa
and in	[]	parts of Asia
there are	[]	people
called	[]	Arabs.
	An	Arab once
lost	his	way
in	a	desert.
He had	no	food and was nearly dying.
Then he saw	a	pool
of	[]	water.
	The	Arab
went up to	the	pool but found
there was	no	water in it.
Just then he saw	a	bag
lying on	the	sand. He thought that
perhaps	the	bag
had	[]	food in it,
and	[]	water too. He began to
feel it with	his	hands. He felt that it was
filled with	[]	little round things, and cried out,
'I hope they are	[]	dates
or	[]	nuts.'
When he opened	the	bag, he found that
they were	[]	jewels, which are
no good to	a	hungry man.

fell on	The	poor Arab
died of	the	sand and
From	[]	hunger.
form	this	story we may
	the	moral:
	The	jewel may
be	the	most valueless
of	[]	things.

§148. If you count the words in this story you will find that there are 204 in all (if we count the mark []), and that 43 of these (nearly a quarter) are determinatives.

§149. This is one of the best and most interesting ways to learn about determinatives and how to use them.  I should like you to take some story from your reading-book (or a part of a story) and arrange it in the same way. Don't put the mark [] before any proper noun, because there are no determinatives before proper nouns.

CHAPTER 4

WORDS LIKE *HE*, *HIM*, OR *YOU*

§150. What is it that is strange or unusual about the following sentences ?

Tom was going to the station when I saw Tom. Mary said that Mary was tired. I don't drink coffee because I don't like coffee. When Mr. and Mrs. Smith came here, I spoke to Mr. and Mrs. Smith. Harry and Jack did not stay long because Harry and Jack had not much time.

§151. We notice at once the funny way in which the names are repeated. What shall we do to avoid this repetition ? It is quite simple ; we replace the second *Tom* by *him*, the second *Mary* by *she*, the second *coffee* by *it*. Instead of saying *Mr. and Mrs. Smith* a second time we say *them*, and put *they* in place of the second *Harry and Jack*.

§152. Words like *him*, *she*, *it*, *them* and *they*, then, are used in the place of nouns, generally to avoid the needless repeating of a noun. In grammar these words are called **pronouns** (*pro* is a Latin word meaning *for*, and these words are used *for nouns*).

§153. Wouldn't it be inconvenient if we had no words like *I*, *me* or *you* ? Instead of *I see*, or *Look at me*, we should have to say *The person who is now speaking sees*, or *Look at the person who is now speaking*. And I really don't know how we should get on without the word *you*.

§154. The words *I*, *me* and *you* are also pronouns.

§155. Then there are the words *we* and *us*, which are much more convenient to use than ‘*You and I*,’ ‘*You and me*,’ or ‘*I and my friend*.’

§156. Note the pronouns in the following^c sentences.

☞ How many are there ?

I see you. He is speaking to her. We like it. They will meet us. She wrote to him. Tom took them. It is near me. You understand.

THE THREE PERSONS

§157. In grammar we often speak about the ‘three persons.’ This does not really mean ‘three people.’ It means :

The person or persons who speaks (or writes).

This is called the **First Person**.

The person or persons spoken (or written) to.

This is called the **Second Person**.

The person or persons, or the thing or things spoken (or written) about.

This is called the **Third Person**.

Thus :

First Person : *I, me, we, us.*

Second Person : *You.*

Third Person : *He, him, she, her, it, they, them,*
together with the names of all the people and
things that we can talk about.

§158. It is convenient to be able to use this grammar-word *person*, and in the other chapters of this book you will often see this word, and note how useful it is for explaining different things about sentences and how to build them.

§159. Put the words *first*, *second*, or *third* after each of the following, according to whether they stand for the first, second, or third person :

1. she. 2. the man. 3. me. 4. you. 5. they. 6. it.
7. we. 8. trees. 9. I. 10. my friends. 11. the other.
12. some of us. 13. these. 14. all of you. 15. them.

NUMBER

§160. There is another useful word in grammar, and that is the word **number**, which is used in a special sense. We say that in English there are two *numbers* : **singular** and **plural**. (We learnt the meanings of these words in Chapter 2.) If any word stands for one single thing or person we say that the word is *singular* or *in the singular* ; if it stands for more than one thing or person we say that the word is *plural* or *in the plural*.

§161. If we look at the twelve pronouns listed above (in §157) we shall see that eight of them are singular and five of them are plural, the word *you* being both singular and plural.

CASE

§162. This is another word that we find in grammar-books. In English it is used chiefly to mark the difference between such words as *I* and *me*, *he* and *him*, or *we* and *us*.

§163. *I*, *he*, *she*, *we* and *they* are of the **subject-case**,¹ while *me*, *him*, *her*, *us* and *them* are of the **object-case**.² You will at once see the difference. We say, *I come* (not *Me come*), *He comes* (not *Him comes*), but *The man sees me* (not *The man sees I*) and *The man sees him* (not *The man sees he*).

¹ In many grammars this is called the *nominative case*.

² In many grammars this is called the *objective* or *accusative case*.

§164. As for the words *you* and *it*, they belong to both cases.

§165. This is the way we generally arrange these 12 pronouns (but, as you see, there are really 16 of them).

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	SUBJECT	OBJECT	SUBJECT	OBJECT
1ST PERSON .	I	me	we	us
2ND PERSON .	you	you	you	you
3RD PERSON .	he, she, it	him, her, it	they	them

GENDER

§166. This is a grammar-word which is very important in some languages, but not in English. It stands for the difference between *man*, *woman*, *tree*; or *boy*, *girl*, *house*; or *prince*, *princess*, *castle*; or, as in the table above, *he*, *she*, *it* and *him*, *her*, *it*.

§167. *Man*, *boy*, *prince*, *he*, *him* are called **masculine**.

§168. *Woman*, *girl*, *princess*, *she*, *her* are called **feminine**.

§169. The names of all animals and things and the word *it* are called **neuter**¹ (that means *neither* masculine nor feminine).

§170. *They* and *them* may be masculine, feminine or neuter.

¹ Sometimes we think or speak of animals as if they were people, and then we use the masculine and feminine pronouns and not the neuter pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

§171. The 16 pronouns in the table above (Yes, there are only 12 different words, but they count as 16 pronouns) are generally called *personal pronouns*. That means pronouns standing for the three 'persons' that we spoke about just now. I think you will find it very useful to learn the above table by heart before we go any further.

§172. ✎ After that you may make sentences using each one of these sixteen words.

ONE

§173. The word *one* has more than one meaning and use. When we say *I saw only one house*, or *Give me one*, it is a determinative. But when we say *One often makes mistakes like that*, or *It makes one tired*, it is so much like a personal pronoun that we can almost put it among the personal pronouns. You may add it to the table above if you like. As it is used only in the singular, it should be put under each of the words *it*.

THE -SELF PRONOUNS

§174. Have you noticed that we don't say *I cut me* or *You dress you*, but *I cut myself* and *You dress yourself*? You have certainly noticed the difference in meaning between *He hit him* and *He hit himself*, or between *They looked at them* and *They looked at themselves*. And I think you can easily make a rule from these examples.

§175. The rule is: when the subject and the object happen to be the same person, we use a *-self* form for the object.

§176. Here are the *-self* forms arranged as in the table above.

	SINGULAR (Subject or object)	PLURAL (Subject or object)
1ST PERSON . .	myself	ourselves
2ND PERSON . .	yourself	yourselves
3RD PERSON . .	himself herself itself oneself	themselves

§177. We have seen that the *-self* form of pronouns is used for the object when the object stands for the same person or thing as the subject. In grammar, these pronouns are called **reflexive**. When we say *I see myself*, we think of the looking-glass that *reflects* the picture of oneself.


§178. But the *-self* form of pronouns is used for another purpose, and that is to put what is called *emphasis* on the subject or object. Note these examples :

WITHOUT EMPHASIS
 I went there.
 He can do the work.
 I saw her.
 I saw the thing.


WITH EMPHASIS
 I **myself** went there.
 He **himself** can do the work.
 I saw the lady **herself**.
 I saw the thing **itself**.

§179. When the *-self* form is used in this way the pronouns are called **emphatic** pronouns. These pronouns are sometimes found with *by* in front of them, *by myself*, *by yourself*, etc., and all these expressions mean *alone* or *without help*. Here are some examples :

I was **by myself** (or *alone*).
 Can you go there **by yourself** (or *alone*) ?
 This is a machine that moves or goes **by itself**.

§180. Here is a little exercise on the *-self* words.  Put one of them in place of each dash.

1. I have burnt —. 2. This machine goes by —. 3. I can do that —. 4. We don't much like it —. 5. Look at — in the glass. 6. They — did it. 7. He has burnt —. 8. We — saw it. 9. Did she write that letter — ? 10. Mind you don't cut —. 11. One can easily lose — in this wood. 12. You and Tom can do that by —.

§181.  In which of these sentences are the *-self* words used as reflexive pronouns, and in which as emphatic pronouns ?

* * *

§182. That is all you need really learn about pronouns, but it may be useful for you to read the following notes.

§183. You remember that in Chapter 3 we saw that determinatives may be used either to modify nouns or as noun substitutes. For instance :

MODIFIER OF NOUN

I have **some** bread.

This is **my** pencil.

There is **no** water.

NOUN SUBSTITUTE

I have **some**.

This is **mine**.

There is **none**.

§184. Now in many grammars when a determinative is used as a noun substitute it is called a pronoun, and so we often read and learn about things that are called demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns, indefinite pronouns, etc. As we shall see later, there are other classes of words that are sometimes called pronouns, such as relative and interrogative pronouns, but I don't think you need trouble about learning those names. But we had better learn now about some words that are not quite pronouns and not quite nouns. We may call them **noun substitutes**.

§185. What do you think of such sentences as these ?

Is your *garden* a large *garden* or a small *garden* ?

I want a long *ladder* ; not a short *ladder*.

There are many sorts of *books* in my friend's library ; there are large *books*, small *books*, thick *books*, thin *books*, brown *books*, red *books*, English *books*, French *books*, interesting *books* and uninteresting *books*.

§186. They sound rather strange, don't they ? So instead of putting the same noun twice or more times in the sentence, we say the noun once and then we replace it by the word *one* or *ones*, like this :

Is your garden a large *one* or a small *one* ?

I want a long ladder, not a short *one*.

There are many sorts of books in my friend's library ; there are large *ones*, small *ones*, thick *ones*, thin *ones*, brown *ones*, red *ones*, English *ones*, French *ones*, interesting *ones* and uninteresting *ones*.

§187. This word *one* (or *ones*) is a noun substitute, because we can *substitute* it for a noun.

§188. Look at these sentences and substitute *one* (or *ones*) for nouns (put *one* or *ones* in place of nouns) when it makes the sentence sound better :


1. I have some green apples and some red apples ; which apples would you like better ? 2. There are two dogs ; a big dog and a little dog. 3. Did you come by the fast train or by the slow train ? 4. These shoes are too dear ; have you any cheaper shoes ? 5. We shall want more than three chairs ; bring another chair, please. 6. If somebody offered you a good lamp, or a better lamp or a lamp better than the other two, which lamp would you choose—the good lamp, the better lamp or the best lamp ?

COMPOUND WORDS ENDING IN *-THING*, *-BODY*, *-ONE*

§189. Here is a little group of words that you know very well :

<i>something</i>	<i>somebody</i>	<i>someone</i>
<i>anything</i>	<i>anybody</i>	<i>anyone</i>
<i>nothing</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>no one</i>
<i>everything</i>	<i>everybody</i>	<i>everyone</i>

As they are not quite pronouns and not quite nouns, we can call them **noun-substitutes**.

§190. You will notice that we never put *a*, *the*, *my*, etc., in front of them.  Make a few sentences with those words.

CHAPTER 5

DOING THINGS, BEING OR BECOMING THINGS, THINGS THAT HAPPEN

§191. Look at the following sentences, particularly at the words printed in **thick type**.

Stand up, please.

The children **are playing**.

Please **take** one.

Birds **fly**.

I **am** alone.

Please **cut** my hair.

Somebody **opened** the door.

The boy **has fallen** down.

The men **worked** very hard.

He **threw** the stone at the man.

At what time **do you go** to school ?

We **see** with our eyes.

The sun **shines**.

The cow **jumped** over the moon.

I **have** one.

I **want** some more jam.

The man **has hurt** himself.

I **stick** the stamp on the letter.

Come here.

Will you come here ?

Don't break it.

It is **getting** dark.

Look here.

The door suddenly **opened**.

The boy **kicked** the ball.

Put them on the table.

You **need not** trouble.

Can you do that ?

I **think** so.

The ball **was kicked** by the boy.

The stamp **sticks** on the letter.

Who **can run** faster ?

I **don't know**.

By whom **was this letter written** ?

The little dog **laughed**.

Jack Spratt **could** eat no fat.

I **shut** the door yesterday.

Wood **burns**.

The man **began** to read the letter.

A wheel **turns**.

It **gets** dark early.

The sun **is shining**.

Please let me come in.
 What is that ?
 The ice broke.
 Fishes swim.
 Stop doing that; you are hurting me.
 Nobody understands.
 I want to have some more jam.
 It was raining.
 This knife doesn't cut.
 When shall you come back ?
 He said something to make me laugh.
 The dish ran away with the spoon.
 The dog is trying to catch the rabbit.

Have you had your breakfast ?
 The rain lasted all day.
 I was reading a book.
 He has thrown it all away.
 I must burn this paper.
 The door was opened by somebody.
 It is beginning to rain.
 Where have you been all day ?
 At what time does it begin ?
 This may have been broken by the boy.
 The man stopped turning the wheel.
 The accident was seen by many people.
 It would be better to stop.

§192. Now what are these words that are printed in thick type ? They are certainly not nouns—words standing for things we talk about ; they are not words that determine nouns, nor are they the words that take the place of nouns. They are a sort of word that is quite different from any of these.

§193. The first thing that we note about them is that they tell us what people and things *do* ; they answer such questions as *What do you do ? What is the boy doing ? What did he do ?* or *What shall we do ?* They tell us what happens.

QUESTION

ANSWER

What are you doing ?	I am reading (or writing or coming or waiting).
What did he do ?	He spoke (or fell or ran or waited).
What shall we do ?	We shall go (or stay or play or work).

§194. They are also used to ask what people or things

are doing, were or will be doing, or to ask what happens or is happening. Thus :

What are you doing ?

What was he doing ?

What happened then ?

§195. They are used, too, to tell people what to do, or to ask people to do things.

Come here, please.

Stop.

Look at me.

Wait a moment.

§196. With words of this sort we can say that people or things *are* this or that, or that they *become* this or that.

§197. These words are called **verbs**. (*Verb* used to mean *word*, because verbs are the most important words in the sentence.)

§198. In fact we cannot say anything or ask anything or tell anybody to do anything without using a verb. We cannot make a sentence without one.

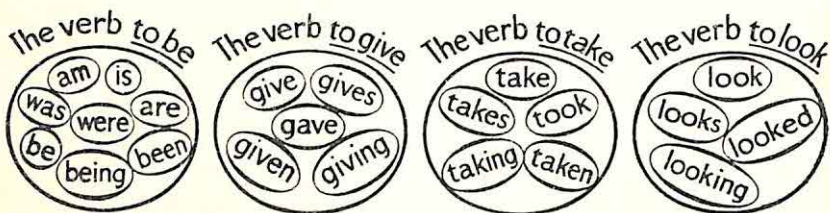
§199. Take the sentence *You look at it carefully*. We can take away the word *carefully* and it still remains a sentence ; we may take away the words *at it* and it is still a complete sentence ; we may even take away the word *you*, so that all that is left is the word *look*, and this word *look* is the sentence—but we cannot take away the word *look* without destroying the sentence.

§200. — See now whether you can put a suitable verb in the place of each of these dashes :

1. What does a bird do ? It —. 2. What does the sun do ? It —. 3. What does the wind do ? It —. 4. What can we do with a knife ? We can — with it. 5. Cats —

mice. 6. We — with a pen or a pencil. 7. Fire —. 8. Fishes —. 9. A fish —. 10. We — water and we — food.

§201. Now when we say *verb* or speak of a *verb* we do not always mean one word, but generally a little group of words which taken all together make up the verb. Thus we do not count *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *being* and *been* as eight verbs, but we put them all together and call them 'the verb *to be*.' In the same way, we do not count *give*, *gives*, *gave*, *giving* and *given* as five verbs, but call them all 'parts of the verb *to give*.' These pictures will show you what I mean :




It is as if the verb itself were a *family* and in the family are counted the *members* of the family (the father, mother and children). This is very important for you to remember, and if you don't remember it, you will find it difficult to understand how verbs are arranged in sentences and how they work.

§202. When I said just now that a sentence is not complete without a verb, what I really meant was that it was not complete without a *member* of the verb that is called a *finite member*. For some of the members of a verb are what are called *finite members* (or more simply *finites*, while other members are not finites—there is no particular name for these, so we shall call them simply *non-finites* when we want to speak about them). Here are a few verbs arranged in such a way that you see the finites on the right and the non-finites on the left :


NON-FINITES

FINITES

(to) go, going, (I have) gone.	(I) go, (he) goes, (I) went.
(to) look, looking, (I have) looked.	(I) look, (he) looks, (I) looked.
(to) speak, speaking, (I have) spoken.	(I) speak, (he) speaks, (I) spoke.

§203.  Perhaps you can arrange in the same way the verbs *to take*, *to break*, *to want*, *to play*, *to stop*, *to think*, *to begin* and *to work*, and any other words that your teacher may suggest.

§204. You should now learn how to tell the difference between finites and non-finites. This is very easy. If there is only one verb-word in a sentence it is a finite ; if there are two or more verb-words in a sentence the first one is a finite and the others are not. That is a very safe rule to follow.

§205.  Now take the sentences at the beginning of this chapter and say which are the finites.

PRESENT AND PAST

§206. When somebody asks you, *What do you do every day ?* or *What does John do in the morning ?* you answer *I get up, have breakfast, go to school, play, work, run, walk,* or *He gets up, has breakfast, goes to school, plays, works, runs,* and so on. But when somebody asks you, *What did you do yesterday ?* or *What did John do last week ?* you answer *I (or He) got up, had breakfast, went to school, played, worked, ran, walked,* and so on. When you speak about things that happen every day, or every morning, or every week, or now, you use the sort of finites that I have put below on the left-hand side ; but when you speak about things that people did, or about things that happened yesterday, or last week, or last year, or a long time ago, you use the sort of finite that I have put below

on the right-hand side. Those you see on the left are called **present finites** and those on the right are called **past finites**.

PRESENT FINITES


Look (looks), open (opens), work (works), kick (kicks), jump (jumps), laugh (laughs), see (sees), swim (swims), think (thinks), get (gets), give (gives), speak (speaks), stand (stands), say (says), make (makes), catch (catches), stick (sticks), shine (shines), understand (understands), take (takes), eat (eats), throw (throws), fall (falls), write (writes), know (knows), do (does), break (breaks), drink (drinks), see (sees), begin (begins).


PAST FINITES

Looked, opened, worked, kicked, jumped, laughed, saw, swam, thought, got, gave, spoke, stood, said, made, caught, stuck, shone, understood, took, ate, threw, fell, wrote, knew, did, broke, drank, saw, began.

PRESENT FINITES

§207. We will first talk about the finites that you see on the left-hand side. You see that between parentheses, (), there are finites with *s* at the end of them.

§208. Now can you answer this question :  When do we put *s* at the end of present finites ? We certainly do not say *I looks* or *you opens* or *they works*. In your answer you may use the grammar-words that I explained in Chapter 4 : *person* and *singular*.


§209.  Which of these sentences are wrong, and how can we correct them ?

1. *He go to bed.*
2. *We get up.*
3. *They speaks to me.*
4. *John wants one.*
5. *I understands.*
6. *The sun rise in the East.*
7. *A lot of people thinks so.*
8. *You know that.*

§210. I think you found the right answer to my

question, and you said, 'When the present finite is used with the third person singular, we add *s* to it.' Quite right.

§211. But sometimes we have to add *es* and sometimes we change a *y* into *ies*.

§212.  Now change the *I*, *you* or *we* or *they* of the following sentences into *he* or *she*, and change the finite into its proper *s*-form.

1. I like eggs. 2. We do that. 3. You try mine. 4. We write letters. 5. You often go. 6. They sometimes catch fish. 7. I say good morning. 8. They always cry.

§213. But what shall we do with *have* when we use *he* or *she*? We don't say *He have*s. Well, in that case we use the word *has*; we call it an *irregular* form.

§214. We say *I am here* or *You are here*; but what word do we use when the sentence begins with *he* or *she* or *it*? We don't say *He am*s or *She are*s. Well, we use quite a different word, and say *He is*, *She is*, or *It is*.

§215. The way that we generally arrange present finites in grammar-books is like this:

	The verb <i>to take</i>	The verb <i>to want</i>	The verb <i>to try</i>	The verb <i>to have</i>	The verb <i>to be</i>
1st p. sing. ¹	I take	I want	I try	I have	I am
2nd p. sing.	You take	You want	You try	You have	You are
3rd p. sing.	He takes	He wants	He tries	He has	He is
1st p. plu.	We take	We want	We try	We have	We are
2nd p. plu.	You take	You want	You try	You have	You are
3rd p. plu.	They take	They want	They try	They have	They are

§216. The above arrangement is called *the present tense of verbs*; we shall read more about this in Appendix I.

§217. We also use the present finite when we give orders. We say *Take this*, *Come here*, *Go away*, *Look*, *Listen* (or, more politely, *Take this, please*; *Please come here*,

¹ *P. sing.* and *p. plu.* is a short way of writing *person singular* and *person plural*.

or *Just go away*).¹ This form that we use for ordering people to do things is called the **Imperative**. There is one example of the imperative that you should note here. When we want somebody to be somewhere or to be something, we do not say *Are here!* or *Are quiet!* etc., but *Be here!* or *Be quiet!* etc. *To be* is the only verb in which the imperative-word is not the same word as the *present-tense word*.

PAST FINITES

§218. Now we must say a little about the past finites; those you see on the right-hand side of the list in §206.

§219. Let us arrange them as they always do in grammar-books, with pronouns in front of them :


	The verb <i>to take</i>	The verb <i>to want</i>	The verb <i>to try</i>	The verb <i>to have</i>	The verb <i>to be</i>
1st p. sing.	I took	I wanted	I tried	I had	I was
2nd p. sing.	You took	You wanted	You tried	You had	You were
3rd p. sing.	He took	He wanted	He tried	He had	He was
1st p. plu.	We took	We wanted	We tried	We had	We were
2nd p. plu.	You took	You wanted	You tried	You had	You were
3rd p. plu.	They took	They wanted	They tried	They had	They were

§220. When the past finites are arranged in this way we call the arrangement the **past tense** of verbs; we shall read more about this in Appendix I. The first thing that we notice about it is this: that the word remains the same for all persons and numbers. That is one of the reasons why the English verb is rather easy; in some languages the finite changes for every person and number. But you will see one exception, and that is the past tense of the verb **to be**, which has two forms, *was* and *were*.

§221. The next thing that we notice is that we generally form the past finite by putting *ed* at the end of the present finite. Sometimes we have to double the last consonant


¹ Sometimes we put *you* in front and say *You come here!* or *You take this!* but this is rather a rough way of speaking.

of the verb before adding this *ed*. Thus we write *stopped* and *preferred*. Or if the present finite ends in *y*, we often change the *y* into *ied*.

§222.  Change these present finites into past finites and you will see what I mean :


1. *I look*. 2. *I open*. 3. *I jump*. 4. *I work*. 5. *I want*.
6. *You laugh*. 7. *They hope*. 8. *He asks*. (Mind you take off the *s* first !)
9. *He likes*. 10. *I finish*. 11. *We try*.
12. *They cry*. 13. *We promise*. 14. *I say*. (How do you spell and pronounce the past finite of this ?)

IRREGULAR VERBS

§223. If we were to make a collection of a thousand English verbs we should probably find that about nine hundred of them formed their past finite by adding *ed* to the end. But there are at least one hundred verbs that form their past finite not by adding *ed*, but in other ways. Such verbs as these are called **irregular verbs**.  How do you form the past finites of the following irregular verbs ?

<i>take</i>	<i>run</i>	<i>hear</i>	<i>stand</i>	<i>stick</i>
<i>make</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>sit</i>	<i>fly</i>
<i>think</i>	<i>know</i>	<i>keep</i>	<i>throw</i>	<i>come</i>
<i>get</i>	<i>catch</i>	<i>give</i>	<i>break</i>	<i>drink</i>
<i>swim</i>	<i>write</i>	<i>speak</i>	<i>have</i>	

§224. The irregular verb *to go* forms its past finite by using a different word, *went*. The very irregular verb *to be* uses (as we have seen) the two words *was* and *were*. As for those funny verbs *cut*, *set*, *let*, *put*, *spread*, *cost*, *hurt*, and a few others, their past finite has exactly the same form as their present finite form. (Every day I *put* on my hat ; yesterday I *put* on my hat.)

§225. In Chapter 2 (§44) we read a story about the Two Friends and the Bear, and in Chapter 3 about the Arab and the Jewel.  Say which are the past finites that occur in these two stories.

§226. Before we say more about the finites, we must talk a little about the word *not*, for there is something very strange about it. Look at these sentences: for some reason or other they all seem wrong—and they are wrong: English people never make this sort of sentence.

My friend comes not here every day. I like not this. You understand me not. We went not to the station. We know not this word. My brother speaks not English.

§227. What is it that is wrong about these sentences? Can we make a rule and say that the word *not* must never come after a verb? No, because in the following sentences we find *not* coming after a verb, and the sentences are perfectly natural and correct:

I am not ready. We must not be late. You have not time. We shall not see him. You will not be tired. They cannot come. They ought not to lose it. Do not fall. We may not be there in time. I dare not. You need not trouble. He is not free.

§228. This is very curious. If you write a number of sentences with the word *not* in them, you will find that sometimes you can put the *not* after a finite and that at other times you must not do so. We must really find out why this is.

§229. For some reason or other—nobody quite knows what that reason is—there are just twenty-four finites that can take *not* after them, and all the other finites in the English language—and there are thousands of them—*cannot* take *not* after them.¹ Here is a list of the twenty-four:

(Finites of the verb *to be*): **am, is, are, was, were.**

(Finites of the verb *to have*): **have, has, had.**

¹ See, however, §572.

(Finities of the verb *to do*) : do, does, did.

(Finities of the verb *shall*) : shall, should.

(Finities of the verb *will*) : will, would.

(Finities of the verb *can*) : can, could.

(Finities of the verb *may*) : may, might.

(The one finite of the verb *must*) : must.

(The one finite of the verb *ought*) : ought.

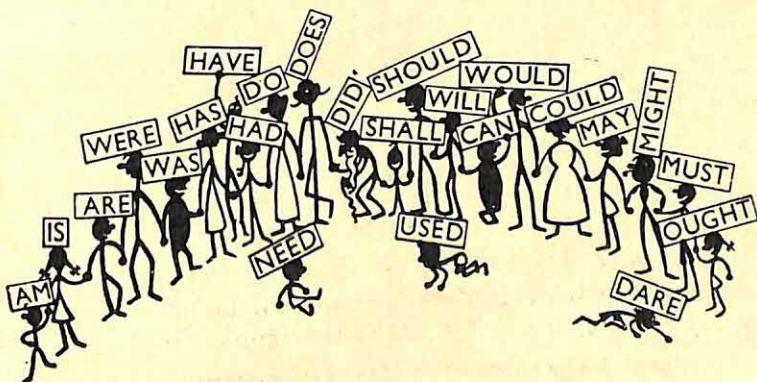
(One finite of the verb *to need*) : need.

(One finite of the verb *to dare*) : dare.

(One finite of the verb *to use*) : used (pronounced *yousst*).

§230. There they are ; all the twenty-four, and there is not any twenty-fifth. What are they ? What shall we call them ? For as we shall often have to talk about them and their funny ways we must have a name for them. Now there is a nice and convenient English word, **anomalous**, which means *strange*, or *not like the others*. Well, these words (and the verbs of which they are members) are certainly strange, or not like the others, so we shall call them the *finities of the anomalous verbs* or, more simply, the **anomalous finities**.

§231. You may imagine them all standing in a row or in a group, saying ' We are the only finities that you may put before the word *not*.'



§232. And there are other reasons why they are anomalous or not like other verbs or finites.

§233. Most of them are terribly irregular.

§234. Many of them are lonely members of verbs that no longer exist (there is no verb *to shall*, or *to can*, or *to may*, or *to must*, or *to ought*).

§235. They not only come before *not* but become joined up to *not* in a funny way. *Do not* becomes *don't*, *will not* becomes *won't*, *can* and *not* are always joined either as *cannot*¹ or as *can't*, *shall not* becomes *shan't*, and so on.

§236. There's another very strange thing about them : they are generally the only finites that can change place with what is called the subject of the sentence. Look at these two words *I* and *am* :



They may change places



and become *Am I*.



§237. Now this jumping over the subject (in grammars this is called **subject-inversion**) can be done only by these twenty-four finites. Try with other finites, and you will

¹ But in America they are written as separate words, *can not*.

see that they won't jump !¹ We can say *You go to the station*, but not *Go you to the station* ? We can say *He wants a horse*, but not *Wants he a horse* ?

§238. There is another curious thing about these twenty-four finites : we put words like *always*, *still* or *never* after them but before all other finites. We say, for instance, *I am always busy*, *He is still here*, or *You must never do that* ; but we do not say, *I come always here*, *He goes still to school*, or *We see never him* : we say *I always come here*, *He still goes to school*, or *We never see him*.

§239. And there are many other curious ways in which these twenty-four finites are different from all the other finites, and so we may well call them 'anomalous'—don't you think so ?

§240. Look at the collection of sentences at the beginning of this chapter and see how many of these anomalous finites you can find. In each case try putting *not* after them and make them jump over the subject—if they have not already jumped ; if they have, make them jump back again !



¹ Except in story-telling, when we sometimes say *said the man*, *answered the king*, *asked the boy*, etc., instead of *the man said*, *the king answered*, *the boy asked*, etc. See §459. See also §380 for another case of subject-inversion with other finites.

VERB-MEMBERS THAT ARE NOT FINITES

§241. We have spoken so far about *finites*, those members of the verbs without which we cannot make any sentences at all. We have spoken of present finites (with an *s*-form for the third person singular) and past finites (which do not change for person or number), of regular and irregular past finites, and of the twenty-four anomalous finites and how different they are from the rest.

§242. It is now time to say a little about those verb-members that are not finites. There are four of these in English ; and you may as well learn their names at once : they are the **Infinitives**, the **Present Participles**, the **Past Participles** and the **Gerunds**. One each of these and one each of the finites form a *verb*, which is really a verb-family. We can think of the verb *to take*, for instance, as being arranged something like this :

INFINITIVE					
<i>take</i>					
PRESENT PARTICIPLE			PAST PARTICIPLE		
<i>taking</i>			<i>taken</i>		
GERUND					
<i>taking</i>					
IMPERATIVE	PRESENT TENSE	PAST			
FINITES					
<i>take</i>	<i>take</i>	<i>takes</i>	PAST FINITE <i>took</i>		

THE INFINITIVE

§243. We will begin with the **infinitive**, for this form is supposed to be the head of the whole family. If you look up a verb in the dictionary you will always find it in the infinitive form. When we name a verb we give it the

infinitive form, but we generally put the little word *to* in front of it, not because this *to* is part of the infinitive but because by saying or writing *to* we make it clear that we are talking about the whole of the family and not about any particular member of the family. We are in the habit of speaking about the verb *to take*, or *to have* or *to be* rather than the verb *take*, *have* or *be*.

§244. Now what is this infinitive and what work does it do in the sentence ?

§245. Well, as to its form (that is, its spelling and pronunciation), it has just the same form as the present tense (without the *s*)¹ or the imperative.

PRESENT TENSE	IMPERATIVE	INFINITIVE
(I) go.	Go !	(to) go.
(I) take.	Take !	(to) take.
(I) am	Be !	(to) be.
(You) are		
(He) is.		

THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT *TO*

§246. In the following sentences we see one of the most important ways of using the infinitive.

1. Can you see me ? 2. I don't know. 3. They will start to-morrow. 4. Jim doesn't like it. 5. Shall I open the window ? 6. We may be late. 7. You must not do that. 8. Let me go. 9. I did not see him. 10. That made him laugh. 11. You should get up earlier. 12. The ice might break. 13. I saw them take it. 14. Nobody heard him come.


§247. The infinitive words are here printed in thick type. You will notice three things about them.

¹ We have already noted that *to be* is the only verb in which the present tense (without the *s*) is not the same as the imperative.

§248. First, each one is the second verb in each sentence.

§249. Second, the verb that comes before them is either one of the anomalous finites or else the finites of *let*, *make*, *see* or *hear*.


§250. Third, that there is no *to* before the infinitive.

§251. Because the infinitive has the same form (the same spelling and pronunciation) as the present tense and the imperative, it is not always easy to say which words are infinitive and which are not. Here are twelve sentences, each of which has the word *go* in it.  In which cases is this word infinitive, present tense or imperative?

1. I shall *go* to-morrow. 2. *Go* away at once. 3. Please don't *go*. 4. Will you *go* now? 5. I *go* there every day. 6. Please *go*. 7. Let me *go*. 8. We must *go* now. 9. He can *go* later. 10. We *go* home every day at six o'clock. 11. *Go* and see. 12. Do *go* quickly.

§252. Remember that the first verb in a sentence is never infinitive.

§253. Remember that a verb is not infinitive if it has a word like *I*, *you*, *he*, *John*, etc., just in front of it.

§254.  Let us now put a suitable infinitive in the place of each of these dashes.

1. Let me — them. 2. We cannot — without eyes. 3. You must — to me in English. 4. At what time shall I — back? 5. Don't — my pen. 6. I saw the man — off his horse. 7. He did not — my name. 8. Will you — that door?

§255. Now let us take some sentences and make each one **negative**; that is to say, put the word *not* into each one. The verb that comes after the *not* will be infinitive, and the verb that comes before it will be either *do*, *does*,

or *did* (but you can write *do not* or *don't*, *does not* or *doesn't* and *did not* or *didn't*).

1. The bear killed the man.
2. John helped Henry.
3. The Arab found some food in the bag.
4. Fishes sing.
5. I know.
6. Ali speaks English.
7. People like dirty water.
8. Break the window.
9. Dogs climb trees.
10. Hurt me.

THE INFINITIVE WITH *TO*

§256. In all the sentences we have been looking or working at we have seen the infinitive without *to*. Let us now learn something about the infinitive with *to*. Here are some examples.


	<i>The word</i> <i>'to'</i>	<i>The Infinitive</i>	
1. I want	to	go	home.
2. They began	to	understand	
3. I am going	to	write	a letter.
4. It is difficult	to	do	that.
5. We used	to	stay	there.
6. You ought not	to	be	late.
7. I have	to	do	some work.
8. He tried	to	finish	his work.
9. It is easy	to	say	that.
10. It is time	to	have	dinner.


§257. Let us make some more sentences like this, putting an infinitive in the place of each dash.

1. I forgot to — him.
2. It seems to — quite clean.
3. We want to — some more.
4. Don't trouble to — them.
5. He was going to — to me.
6. I have a good mind to — to-morrow.
7. The king had to — a good deal of his time changing his clothes.
8. We hope you are able to — it.
9. Their riders tried to — the horses quiet.
10. It was hard to — the ship sail.
11. Vasco then ordered the man to — him.
12. The Great Khan loved to — reports of strange peoples.

§258. There are many other uses of the infinitive. Here are some of them :

To **do** a thing is better than to **promise** that you will do it.
To **go** there at once will be best.
This water is not good to **drink**.
I don't know what to **do**.
Ask him which one to **take**.
I've got a lot of letters to **write**.
I don't know whether to **go** or to **stay** here.
We come here to **learn**.
She went to the river to **wash** the clothes.

§259.  Now take the collection of sentences at the beginning of this chapter and see how many infinitives you can find in them.

§260.  If you want more practice on the infinitive, take some story from your reading-book and mark all the infinitives.

-ING

§261. One of the verb-members that we find very often is the one that ends in *-ing*. Look at these examples :

I am writing a letter.
The children were playing in the street.
This is a very amusing story.
He came running down the street.
Having no pen, he wrote with a pencil.
There is no one living in the house.
They wait about doing nothing.
They flew away, leaving him behind.
He felt his strength increasing.
I saw a ship sailing on the sea.

§262. In these examples every verb ending with *ing* is what is called a **present participle**. In Chapter 15 we shall talk about this form of the verb and how to make sentences with it.

§263. You will be glad to hear that there is little or no irregularity about the verb-member ending in *ing*. You just take the infinitive (or imperative) form and add *ing* to it, but if the infinitive ends in an *e* that is not pronounced, you take the *e* away.¹ Thus, *open*—*opening*, *work*—*working*, *be*—*being*, *see*—*seeing*; but *take*—*taking*, *come*—*coming*, *write*—*writing*.

§264. But you must note that sometimes we have to double the last consonant of the word to which we add the *ing*. Thus we write *stopping*, *cutting*, *running*, *begging*, *swimming*, *travelling*, etc. But this is a rule of spelling and pronunciation which we often have to note. See §221 and §311.

§265. Another spelling rule is that verbs ending in *ie* change the *ie* into *ying*; *lie*, *die*, etc., become *lying*, *dying*, etc.

§266. Now let us change each of the following infinitives into the *ing*-form.

Jump, *go*, *eat*, *get*, *see*, *play*, *cry*, *fall*, *tie*, *have*, *make*, *fly*, *forget*, *stick*, *shine*, *shut*, *rain*, *win*, *do*, *give*, *say*, *hit*, *look*, *begin*.

§267. One of the chief uses of the present participle is to form sentences like these :

I am **working** in the garden. My friend is **doing** nothing. It is **raining**. I was **walking** along the road. We are **having** a lot of rain. They are **speaking** English. I shall be **coming** back later. Are you **writing** a letter ? Is John **going** out ?

Here the present participle is used with members of the verb *to be* and forms what we call the **progressive** tenses—we shall read about these in §§611–622 and in Appendix I.

¹ About the only exception is the verb *to dye* (to change the colour of something by using a stuff called *dye*), the *ing*-form of which is *dyeing* (to make it different from *dying*, which belongs to the verb *to die*).

§268. Another use of the present participle is to be found in sentences like these :

There's somebody *coming*. *Opening* the door, he went out. He came *running* along the street. He's busy *writing*. Not *having* received an answer, I wrote again.

Here the present participle is used in what are called **present participial phrases**. We shall also read—in the next chapter—how present participles are used in such expressions as :

An *interesting* book, an *amusing* man, a *surprising* result.

PAST PARTICIPLES

§269. Look at these verb-members : *Given, taken, spoken, gone, eaten, flown, fallen, written, known, done, broken, swum, drunk, seen, begun, thrown*.


§270. What are they ? They are not infinitives, imperatives, present or past finites or present participles.

§271. What can we do with them ? There are several very useful things that we can do with them. One is to make sentences of this sort :

A. I have *given* it to him. You have *taken* my bicycle. I have never *spoken* to him. He has *gone* away. What have you *eaten* ? I have *been* there.

§272. Another useful thing that we can do with these words is to make sentences of this sort :

B. The lesson is *given* by the teacher. The letters are *taken* by the postman. English is *spoken* in England. This letter is *written* in English. These things are often *done*. My pencil is *broken*.

§273. These words are called **past participles**. *Given* is the past participle of the verb *to give* ; *taken* is the past participle of the verb *to take*.  See whether you can

find what verbs the other past participles (in the lists of sentences above) belong to.

§274. Here is another use of past participles :

C. I shall not write the letter myself ; I shall have (*or get*) it *written* by somebody else. You had better have (*or get*) your luggage *taken* to the station. When can we get it *done* ? I shall have (*or get*) those old things *thrown* away.

§275. In the examples marked A above, the past participles with the verb *to have* form what are called the **perfect tenses** ; in the examples marked B the past participles with the verb *to be* form what is called the **passive voice** ; in the examples marked C the past participles with the verb *to have* or *to get* form what is called an **object-complement**. We shall read all about this in §§511, 518.

§276. Here are other uses of past participles.

Tired of waiting, I went to bed. A boy *called* John. A letter *written* in haste. I want these things *taken* away. A *broken* bottle. *Spoken* and *written* English.

GERUNDS

§277. We have already seen that verb-members ending with *ing* may be used as *present participles* ; they may also be used to take the place of nouns. Here are some examples :

I like *reading*. *Seeing* is *believing*. My shoes want *mending*. Excuse my *passing* in front of you. I didn't think of *staying* long.

§278. When the *ing*-form is used in this way we call it the **gerund**. We shall read about gerunds in Chapter 13.

§279. We have now collected so many different verb-forms that it is time to write them out in a list so that you can see clearly the differences between them and fix their

names in your memory. Let us take a sheet of paper and rule it in five columns like this :

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Infinitive, Present Finite and Imperative	Present Finite s-form	Past Finite	The ing-form	Past Participle

§280. Now let us make a collection of verbs and arrange their members in the five columns. We had better start with the group of verbs of which the past participles are given in §269. Thus :

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
give take speak	gives takes speaks	gave took spoke	giving taking speaking	given taken spoken

and so on, until we get to

throw	throws	threw	throwing	thrown
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§281. Let us now collect more verbs and arrange them in the same way. I suggest the following verbs to begin with :

Stand, say, make, catch, stick, think, shine, understand, have.

§282. Columns 1 and 2 are filled in quite easily, but we must be careful about column 3 ; if you are not quite certain about what word to write in it you may say : 'Yesterday I . . .' and I think you will then find the right word. *Yesterday I stand?* No, it isn't that. *Yesterday I standed?* No, of course not. *Yesterday I . . . stood?* Yes, *stood* is the right word. If you have forgotten the right word for column 3 you can ask your teacher what word to put, but in the various pages of this chapter you will find all the words you need for filling up this column. Column 4 is not difficult ; don't forget to take away from the end of the verb any *e* that is not pronounced.

§283. But what are you going to write in column 5 ? You have already written the first sixteen of them (from *given* to *thrown*) and you have probably noticed that they all end with *n*. But you must not think that past participles always end with *n*.

§284. Let me tell you something now. The past participle has nearly always the same form as the past finite. The sixteen examples you have already written down are exceptions ; they are *irregular* past participles. Now set to work and fill in the columns for the nine verbs *stand* to *have*, remembering that in column 5 the words will be the same as in column 3.

§285. Now let us take the following verbs and fill in the five columns :

Want, look, stop, open, work, kick, jump, laugh, play, hunt, rain, try.

§286. What have you noticed about them ? How did you spell the *ing*-form of the verb *stop* ? Did you notice that all these verbs follow the general rule and form the past finite (column 3) and the past participle (column 5) by adding *ed* ? What did you do with the verb *try* in columns 3 and 5 ? I hope you remembered to change the *y* into *i* before adding the *ed*.

§287. Now here come a few rather funny verbs : *cut, put, set, hurt, hit, let, shut*. Why are they funny ? When you have filled up the columns, and have read columns 1, 3 and 5, you will see why they are funny. It is because it is the same word in each case ! *Cut—cut—cut ; put—put—put, set—set—set*, and so on.

§288. Have you noticed that all of them end with the letter *t* ? (Don't forget to double that *t* for the *ing*-form, except in the use of *hurt*.)

§289. The last verbs that you should write out in the five columns are also rather strange: they are *come*, *become*, *run*, and *read*. For the first three the column 1 and column 5 forms are alike, but the past finite forms (column 3) are different. The last verb, *read*, is strange in this way: it is spelt in the same way in columns 1, 3 and 5, but in column 1 it is pronounced as if it were spelt *reed*, and in columns 3 and 5 as if it were spelt *red*.

§290. Let us finish up with our old friend *to be*. This, of course, will be very different from any other verb, because it is so terribly irregular and anomalous. In column 1 you will have to write three words instead of one; in column 3 there will be two words instead of one; and (in column 5) the past participle ends with *n*.

§291. Have you finished writing out the whole table? There should be forty-nine verbs in all. Of course there are many more verbs than this in English; there are many hundreds of them, even thousands. But if you have learnt the five forms of each of these forty-nine, you will have very little trouble with the others, which are mostly regular.

VERBS THAT WORK IN TWO WAYS

§292. Let us look at these pairs of sentences:

I **broke** the bottle.

The bottle **broke**.

People **burn** wood.

Wood **burns**.

We can **turn** wheels.

Wheels can **turn**.

I **stuck** a piece of wood in the ground.

A piece of wood **stuck** in the ground.


He suddenly **opened** the door.

The door suddenly **opened**.

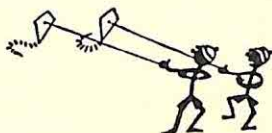
§293. Here we see verbs being used in two different ways. In the examples on the left-hand side we read that people are doing something to something: they are

breaking something, burning something, turning something, etc. In the examples on the right-hand side we read that the things themselves are doing something : a bottle breaks, wood burns, wheels turn, etc.

When we use verbs as we have used them above, we are using them transitively .	When we use verbs as we have used them above, we are using them intransitively .
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§294. Here are some sentences in which the verb is used transitively.  Now change each sentence in such a way that the verb is used intransitively :

1. The men rolled the barrel along the ground. (What did the barrel do?)
2. The boys are flying their kites. (What are the kites doing?)



3. I can shut this door easily.
4. They begin their work at 8 o'clock.
5. We pour the water out of the bottle.
6. I join the two ends together.

§295. That is all you need learn about verbs for the present, but in later chapters we will talk more about how verbs are used in sentences.

CHAPTER 6

WORDS THAT TELL US WHAT THINGS ARE LIKE

§296. In Chapter 3 we read about those words called *determinatives* and how these tell us something about the things (and people) for which nouns stand ; how they tell us which thing, how much of a thing, how many things, whose things we are talking about. But none of these determinatives tell us *what the thing is like*. If I say, for instance, 'books,' you ask 'What books ?' and I may answer 'These books' ; or you may ask 'How many books ?' and I may answer 'Three books,' or 'Very many books' ; or you may ask 'Whose books ?' and I may answer 'My books,' or 'Mine.' But none of these answers tell you *what sort of books* or *what the books are like*. If you ask me 'What sort of books ?' or 'What are the books like ?' I answer with such words as :

Large, small, thick, thin, good, bad, difficult, easy, cheap, new, old, famous, useful, useless, readable, incomplete, nice-looking, English, French, interesting, uninteresting, amusing, badly made, etc.

§297. These words, and many hundreds of words like them, are called **adjectives**. They are sometimes called **adjectives of quality**, but I think that we may talk of them simply as *adjectives*.

§298. Somebody speaks to us about a man. We ask him 'What sort of man ?' or 'What is the man like ?' What answer is he likely to give us ? Well, he may say

'A *tall* man,' or 'A *good* man.' Think of a number of other words that would answer our question. These words will be, in most cases at least, adjectives.

§299. Then use a number of words to describe (1) a building; (2) a box; (3) a bridge; (4) a light; (5) a flower. These words will most likely be adjectives.

§300. But here we must take care. We must be quite certain that the word we use will answer both questions; not only the question 'What sort?' but also the question 'What is it like?' for the answers have not quite the same form. Let us compare them:

WHAT SORT ?

It is a **high** building.

It is an **open** box.

That is a **wide** bridge.

This is a **difficult** question.

We say that in the examples above the adjectives are used **attributively**.

WHAT IS IT LIKE ?

The building is **high**.

The box is **open**.

That bridge is **wide**.

This question is **difficult**.

We say that in the examples above the adjectives are used **predicatively**.

§301. It does not matter why these two words are used, nor how these words first came to be used. Some grammarians use different words to express these two things, but I think we can use the words *attributive(ly)* and *predicative(ly)*, and I am sure that you will remember them.

§302. Now whenever you want to know whether a word is an adjective or not (and this is sometimes not easy), you must try to use it both attributively and predicatively and see whether it works.

§303. Let me give you an example of what I mean. Here is the sentence *This is a garden wall*. Is *garden* here an adjective? It rather looks like one because it makes an answer to the question 'What sort of wall?' and we say 'It is a garden wall.' But if we are asked:

'What is the wall like?' we do not answer 'The wall is garden,' because that does not make sense.

§304. Try each of the *italicised* words in these expressions and find out whether it is an adjective or not :

1. An *English* book. (Can you say, 'This book is English'?)
2. A *happy* man. (Can you say, 'This man was happy'?)
3. A *railway* station. (Can you say, 'This station was railway'?)
4. An *eastern* country. (Can you say, 'This country is eastern'?)
5. A *boy* friend. (Can you say, 'This friend is boy'?)
6. A *sudden* change. (Can you say, 'This change was sudden'?)
7. A *post* card. (Can you say, 'This card is post'?)
8. A *good-looking* man. (Can you say, 'This man is good-looking'?)
9. A *flower* garden. (Can you say, 'This garden is flower'?)

§305. As we saw in Chapter 2, if we put a noun in front of another noun, the first one describes the thing for which the second stands, and in the above examples several of the descriptive words are nouns and not adjectives. This is an important thing to remember, as you will see later.

§306. There is another way to find out whether a word is an adjective or a noun, and that is by putting in front of it such words as *very*, *quite*, *as*, *so*, *more* or *the most*.

§307. Can we say *very large*, *quite good*, *as wide*, *so happy*, *more interesting*, *the most famous*? Yes, of course we can, so we know that *large*, *good*, *wide*, *happy*, *interesting* and *famous* are adjectives.

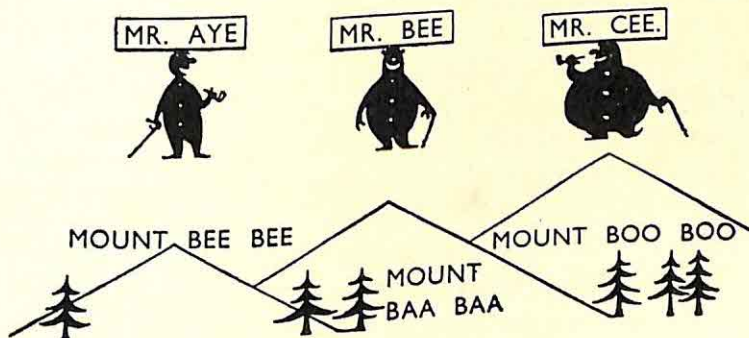
§308. Can we say *very garden*, *quite railway*, *so boy*, *more post*, or *the most flower*? No, of course we can't, so we know that *garden*, *railway*, *boy*, *post* or *flower* are not adjectives, but nouns.

§309. These words *very, quite, as, so, more, the most*, as we shall see later, are called **adverbs of degree**, because they show us to what *degree* a thing is large, small, thick, thin, good, etc.

§310. This word *degree* brings us to another thing that we must learn about adjectives, and that is the two degrees called the **degrees of comparison**. Let us look at these words :

*larger—largest, smaller—smallest, thicker—thickest,
newer—newest, older—oldest.*

§311. You see that they are adjectives with (e)*r* or (e)*st* joined on to them (*r* and *st* if they end with *e*, and *er* and *est* if they do not).¹ Now all adjectives with (e)*r* joined on to them are called **adjectives of the comparative degree** (or simply **comparatives**), and all those with (e)*st* joined on to them are called **adjectives of the superlative degree** (or simply **superlatives**). Look at this arrangement of the two degrees :



Mr. Aye is fat.

Mr. Bee is fatter (than Mr. Aye).

Mr. Cee is the fattest (man in the town).

¹ Sometimes we have to double the last consonant of the word to which we add this *er* or *est*. Thus we write *fatter, fattest, bigger, biggest*, etc.

Mount Bee Bee is high.

Mount Baa Baa is higher (than Mount Bee Bee).

Mount Boo Boo is the highest (mountain in the picture).

Line A is long.


Line B is longer (than line A).

Line C is the longest (of the three).

This house is tall.

This tree is taller (than the house).

This tower is the tallest (of the three things).

§312.  Let us now take the following sentences, and make new sentences by adding (e)r and (e)st to the adjectives. For instance in sentence 1 we see the adjective *old*; we can make the new sentences: *That building is older than this building. That is the oldest building in the city.*

1. *This building is old.*
2. *My brother is young.*
3. *Tom has a long nose.*
4. *This well is deep.*
5. *The sun gives a bright light.*
6. *This stone is heavy.*
7. *This flower is pretty.*

§313. What shall we do with the two words *heavy* and *pretty*? Well, we must do with them what we have sometimes done in other exercises and change the *y* into *i* before we add the ending.¹

§314. Here is another sentence :

8. *Tom is a good pupil.*

What shall we do with the word *good*? We can't say *Tom is a gooder pupil* nor *Tom is the goodest pupil in the class*. Instead of *gooder* and *goodest* we have to say *better* and *best*. As grammarians say: *good*, and some other adjectives, have *irregular* comparative and superlative forms.

¹ See §§ 62 and 211.

§315. Here is another sentence :

9. *On Tuesday the weather was bad.*

What words shall we put in the place of these dashes ?

On Wednesday the weather was — than on Tuesday.

On Thursday we had the — weather of the whole year.

We can't put *badder* and *baddest*. We have to put *worse* and *worst*, the irregular comparative and superlative forms of the adjective *bad*.

§316. You will notice, too, that *far* has irregular comparative and superlative forms : *farther* and *farthest*, and that we can also say *further* and *furthest*. The adjectives *right* and *well* have the same comparative and superlative forms as *good*, viz. *better* and *best*, and the adjectives *wrong* and *ill* have the same comparative and superlative forms as *bad*, viz. *worse* and *worst*.

§317. Now what shall we do with the adjectives in the following sentences ?

10. *This book is interesting.*

11. *This is very convenient.*

12. *A cat is a useful animal.*

It would sound very funny—and it would be very incorrect—to say *interestinger*, *convenienter* or the *usefullest*. Instead of putting *er* or *est* at the end of such words we put *more* and *the most* in front of them, and say *more interesting*, *the most interesting*, and so on.


§318. You may ask : when do we use *(e)r*, *(e)st*, and when do we use *more*, *the most* ? The best answer seems to be this :

§319. Put *(e)r* and *(e)st* when the adjective has only one syllable, such as the adjectives *big*, *small*, *fine*, *rich*, *poor*, *dark*, *hard*, *soft*, etc.

§320. Put *more* and *the most* when the adjective has three syllables or more, such as *interesting*, *difficult*,

important, dangerous, natural, regular, necessary, valuable, wonderful, etc.

§321. With adjectives of two syllables use sometimes (e)r—(e)st and sometimes *more—the most*. If we notice carefully we shall see that adjectives ending in *y* (*angry, dirty, easy, hungry, ugly, etc.*), those ending in *ow* (*hollow, yellow, narrow, etc.*), a few ending in *er* (*bitter, clever, tender, etc.*), a few ending in *le* (*gentle, noble, simple, etc.*), and a few others such as *common, quiet, pleasant, etc.*, generally take (e)r—(e)st, but it doesn't really matter much how you form the comparative and superlative of adjectives of two syllables, so you need not be afraid of making bad mistakes with such words.

§322.  Now to finish this little talk about the degrees of comparison let us when necessary put in the place of the adjectives between parentheses () the comparative or superlative of these adjectives, adding (e)r—(e)st or *more—the most* as the case may be. You will find, however, a few cases in which you must leave the adjective just as it is ; I have added these to make the exercise more interesting—and more difficult !

1. The weather is (fine) to-day than it was yesterday.
2. This exercise is (difficult) than the one before.
3. Mount Everest is the (high) mountain in the world.
4. He will be much (happy) where he is.
5. Solomon was one of the (wise) men who ever lived.
6. Yours are not so (good) as mine.
7. Iron is one of the (useful) metals that there are.
8. It tasted as (sweet) as sugar.
9. It is much (bad) than I thought.
10. This is the (simple) rule that I know.
11. Tom is (clever) than Jim.
12. The world is as (round) as an orange.

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES

§323. What do you notice about the two following lists of adjectives ?

- A. Interesting, amusing, loving, missing, exciting, charming, obliging, surprising, disappointing.
- B. Amused, frightened, surprised, tired, satisfied, celebrated, discouraged, pleased, offended.

§324. What we notice is that the words in the list marked A all end with *ing*, and that those in the list marked B all end with *ed*. Do you remember that in Chapter 5 we noticed that all present participles end with *ing*, and that most past participles end with *ed*? Well, the adjectives in the two lists above are just present and past participles of verbs, from the verbs *to interest*, *to amuse*, *to love*, *to miss*, *to frighten*, etc. So we call them **participial** adjectives. In fact the words *participle* or *participial* are meant to show that participles are *partly* verbs and *partly* adjectives.

§325. There are some participial adjectives, however, that do not come quite straight from verbs. There are, for instance, the words *uninteresting*, *unexpected*, *unseen*, *unknown*, while there are no such verbs as *to uninterest*, *to unexpect*, *to unsee* or *to unknow*, so we cannot say that all participial adjectives are the same as the participles of verbs.

§326. Here are a few examples of what are called **compound** participial adjectives, for they are made up (or 'compounded') of two words:

Well-fitting, good-looking, well-behaved, badly-dressed, half-dressed, ready-made.

ADJECTIVES THAT MAKE PLURAL NOUNS

§327. Look at these sentences and expressions: *The rich lived in fine houses and the poor lived in huts. The battlefield was covered with the dead, the dying and the wounded. The good are rewarded. The very young and the very old must be cared for.*

§328. Here we find the words *rich, poor, dead, dying, wounded, good, young, old*, which are adjectives, but used as plural nouns. The reason for this is that in such sentences we use a shorter way of saying *rich people, poor people, dead men, dying soldiers, good people*, etc. Not many adjectives are used like this, and we do not use them very often like this, but in your reading you will sometimes meet with such examples, and it is well for you to know what they are and how they may be explained.

TWO OR MORE ADJECTIVES TO ONE NOUN

§329. To avoid using the same noun two or more times, instead of saying *white roses and red roses* we can say *white and red roses*. In other cases, too, we can use two or more adjectives before a noun; we can say *a big white house*, or *a wide, deep, and quickly-flowing river*, or *a great big hungry wolf*.

In Chapter 4, too, we have seen how nouns after adjectives may be replaced by the noun-substitute *one* (or *ones*).

§330. There is one more thing to say about adjectives before we start talking about other sorts of words. It is this. The name *adjective* is sometimes used not only for the words we have been talking about, but also for all the determinatives that modify nouns, including *a, the, that*, and the numbers. Four of the determinatives have their degrees of comparison, only one of these being regular. These are :

	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
much }		
many }	more	the most.
little	less	the least.
few	fewer	the fewest.

§331. You may now take any story from your reader and point out all the adjectives you can find in it.

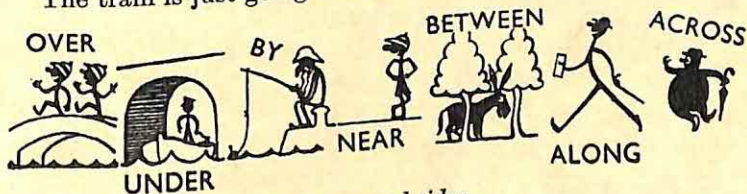
CHAPTER 7

WORDS LIKE ON, OVER, FROM



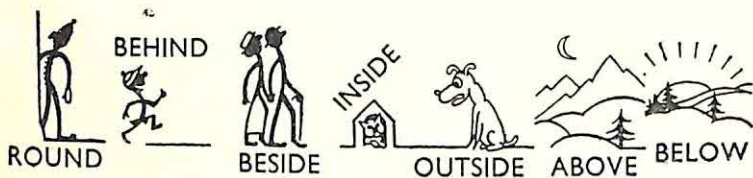
§332.

There's a man standing **at** the door.
 There's a woman sitting **in** the garden.
 The thieves are going **into** the cave.
 The lamp is **on** the table.
 The wind has blown the hat **off** the man's head.
 The girl is going **to** the post.
 The sailor is coming **from** his ship.
 Look at the cat which is climbing **up** the tree.
 Here's a boy rolling **down** the hill.
 The bicycle is leaning **against** the wall.
 The train is just going **through** a tunnel.



Some boys are running **over** a bridge.
 A boat is going **under** the bridge.
 A fisherman is sitting **by** the river.
 A boy is standing **near** the fisherman.

There is a donkey standing **between** the two trees.
 There are some horses standing **among** the trees.
 The tall man is walking **along** the street.
 The short fat man is running **across** the street.



The policeman is just going **round** the corner.
 Mrs. Brown is walking **beside** Mr. Brown.
 Tom Brown is running **behind** them.
 The cat is **inside** the dog's little house.
 The dog is **outside** the dog's little house.
 There are some children sitting **beneath** the branches of a tree.
 The moon is **above** the mountains.
 The sun is sinking **below** the horizon.
 The mountains are **beyond** the hills.

§333. Look at the words printed in thick type. What sort of words are they? They are not nouns nor determinatives nor pronouns nor verbs nor adjectives. They belong to another *part of speech*. It is easy to recognise this sort of word; there is nearly always a noun or a noun substitute after them and often a verb in front of them. These words are called **prepositions** (*pre* means before, and the words are in a *position before* the nouns ¹).

§334. The prepositions you see above are prepositions of *place*, because they tell us the place in which something or somebody is, or is going to or from. They answer the question 'Where?'

§335. — See whether you can put suitable prepositions in the place of dashes in the following sentences.

¹ But, as we shall see in §344, a preposition may come at the end of a sentence.

1. The stone went right — the window. 2. A picture was hanging — the wall. 3. The man opened the door and came — the room. 4. A fly was crawling — the wall and soon reached the top of the wall. 5. The dog jumped — one bank — the other — the stream. 6. There was a big branch just — my head. 7. There are two shops — the church and the post-office. 8. Don't walk — the street without looking to see whether it is safe to do so. 9. The children walked — the hill to the bottom. 10. Open the gate and come — the garden. 11. I hear the bell ring; I think there is somebody — the door. 12. I opened the box but saw nothing — it. 13. The king wears a crown — his head. 14. I can't see what it is because it is — me. 15. Take your feet — that chair; you will make it dirty. 16. Is the hill on this side of the town or — the town?

§336. Sometimes two or more of the prepositions in our list mean nearly the same thing: there is not much difference between *under*, *below* and *beneath*; and there is another preposition, *underneath*, which has almost the same meaning. There is hardly any difference between *beside* and *by*. We can say 'jump *over* a stream,' or jump *across* a stream.' Instead of *on* we sometimes (but not often) use *upon*.

§337. The prepositions we have seen so far are *simple* (or one-word) prepositions; there are others called **compound** prepositions. We have, for instance, *instead of*, *in front of*, *on top of*, *by the side of*, *in the middle of*; in fact, we can build up a large number of these by combining the words in this table:

in	}	{	the end	}	of
at			the beginning		
on			the middle		
to			the side		
from			this side		

§338. Here are some more very common prepositions (we have seen some of them before) :

This letter is **for** *my friend*.

I came **with** *the others*.

He did his work **without** *any difficulty*.

The letter was written **by** *my brother*.

That is the answer **to** *your question*.

This is quite different **from** *the others*.

We were talking **about** *the accident*.

The accident was **through** *his carelessness*.

We were **in** *difficulties*.

They are not prepositions of place ; there is no particular name for them, but you can see or feel at once that they must be prepositions.

§339. It is easy to give a name to the prepositions in the following sentences :

Try to come **before** *the evening*.

He came **after** *dinner*.

We shall be there **during** *the summer*.

I have been here **since** *one o'clock*.

We shall stay here **until** (or **till**) *Monday*.

As they all help to answer the question ' *When ?* ' we call them prepositions of **time**. ~~we~~ Make some more sentences with these prepositions in them.

§340. There is one preposition, perhaps the most used of all, which is rather different from all the others in many ways. It is not a preposition of place nor of time ; it stands in a class all by itself ; it is the preposition **of**. Here are some of its uses :

The palace **of** *the king* (= the king's palace).

The end **of** *the day*.

A piece **of** *bread*.

A pound **of** *sugar*.

A lot **of** *the others*.

The city **of** *London*.

I shall speak **of** *that* later.

The United States **of** *America*.

§341. In all the examples above you see words printed in *italic* type and with a preposition in thick type before them. These prepositions together with the words in *italics* are called **phrases**. All the adverbials beginning with a preposition that you will see in Chapter 16 are phrases.

§342. The prepositions **to** and **for** are rather interesting ones when they are used in such sentences as :

Give the money **to** *him*.

He sent a letter **to** *his friend*.

I bought a present **for** *him*.

Bring some **for** *me* ;

because we can cut out the prepositions altogether by saying :

Give him the money.

He sent his friend a letter.

I bought him a present.

Bring me some.

§343. In the following sentences, too, we can leave out the preposition **for** if we want to :

I was there (**for**) three weeks.

You must have stayed here (**for**) a long time.

PREPOSITIONS AT THE END OF THE SENTENCE

§344. Let us examine these sentences.

What are you looking **at**?

Those are the people I came **with**.

What is it made **of**?

Can you tell me what it is **about**?

That is the packet I took it **from**.

Who is the person you showed them **to**?

§345. What do we notice particularly about them ? What we notice is that the preposition comes at the end of the sentence instead of in the more usual place—in front of the noun or noun substitute. It is possible to arrange these sentences so that the preposition comes in front of the noun or noun substitute ; thus :

At what are you looking ?

Those are the people **with** whom I came ;

but if we do that, the sentences sound stiff and solemn ; not like the natural English that we use when we speak.

§346. In later chapters we shall talk more about the place in sentences of prepositions and other words.

§347. It is quite easy to know which preposition to use when you are answering the question 'Where ?' I'm sure you would never use **to** instead of **from** or **over** instead of **under**. But most learners of English find some difficulty in choosing the right prepositions in other cases, and often use the wrong one ! We have to remember, for instance, that we say **in** January, **in** the morning, but **on** Sunday and **at** night.

§348. In the following sentences you will see that with some verbs or adjectives we must put a certain preposition and not another, or sometimes we must put this or that preposition according to the meaning :

Look **at** me. Wait **for** me. Listen **to** me.

Look **for** it.

That depends **on** you.

I must prevent him **from** going there.

A table is made **of** wood. Bread is made **from** corn.

I agree **with** you. I agree **to** it.

I don't care **for** it. I don't care **about** it.

I shall ask **for** one.

Let's begin with **this** one.

I talked **to** him.
I didn't think **of** that.
They all belong **to** us.
We must choose **between** them.

So all learners of English must be ready to spend some time learning which preposition to use.

THE *ING*-FORM AFTER PREPOSITIONS

§349. If you read the following sentences you will notice something that is worth remembering :

I thanked him **for** coming.
I was prevented **from** writing.
I don't like the idea **of** going.
You had better begin **by** reading this.
He worked **without** stopping.
I am used **to** doing that.
He prefers playing **to** working.

You see what it is ? Every verb after a preposition is in the *ing*-form. It is the *ing*-form used as a *gerund* (we have already spoken about gerunds, and we shall speak about them later in another chapter), and the rule worth remembering is that if a preposition is followed by a verb, that verb must be in the form of a gerund.

TO FOLLOWED BY THE INFINITIVE

§350. Before we finish talking about prepositions I must say something about a little word that is not really a preposition at all. It is the word **to** when it is followed by an *infinitive*. You may ask why it is not a preposition and why it is necessary to say that it is not a preposition. The reason is this : we saw just now that if a verb comes after a preposition, that verb must be a gerund,

it must end with *ing*. So as this sort of *to* is followed by the *infinitive* form of verbs, it can't be a preposition.

§351. Here is a little story in which you will find fifty-four simple prepositions. First read the story.

THE STORY

§352. In the old days, when people used to travel about England by coach instead of travelling by train, some people were going from Bristol to London. While the coach was going across a wild and lonely part of the country, they began talking about robbers, and one man said, 'I have ten pounds in gold with me ; perhaps it will be safer for me to hide them somewhere.'

'You had better put them in your shoes,' said a lady who was sitting by the side of him, and the man did so.

Soon after that, as they were going slowly up a hill among the woods, a loud voice was suddenly heard outside the coach. 'Stop!' said the voice. The coach stopped. A robber rode out of the wood, came up to the coach, and pushed a pistol through the window.

'Give me your money at once,' he said to the people inside the coach. 'I have no money with me,' said the lady, 'but you will find ten pounds in the shoes of the man who is sitting beside me.'

Without saying any more, the robber took the money and rode away into the wood.


The man, of course, was very angry with the lady, and said, 'You must be a friend of the robber.'


The lady answered 'Yes, it must look like that, but if you will all come to dinner with me when we get to London, I will explain everything to you.'


On the following day, when they arrived in London, the people all went to have dinner at the lady's house.


During the meal the lady said, 'I will tell you the reason for what I did yesterday. I had with me a thousand pounds in a box under my seat, and I was afraid that the robber would take them from me. So I told him about your ten

pounds, and by doing this I saved my own money. Now please let me give you a hundred pounds. In that way you will not be sorry to have lost ten pounds, while I am very pleased at saving nine hundred out of my thousand pounds.'

§353.  Now find the fifty-four prepositions, but don't count the word *to* that is followed by the infinitive.

§354.  Now find the four cases in which the word *to* is followed by the infinitive.

§355.  In this story there are four cases of a preposition followed by a gerund (the verb-form ending with *ing*). Find them.

§356.  There are five cases of compound prepositions (see §337). Find them.

CHAPTER 8

WHAT WE ANSWER TO *HOW? WHEN? WHERE?*

HOW

§357. Somebody asks you the question : ' How did you do it ? ' and you want to answer in one word. What sort of word will that be ? Here are some of the words that you could use in your answer :

(I did it) *quickly, slowly, easily, carefully, carelessly, quietly, nicely, properly, regularly, suddenly, successfully, thoroughly, badly, well.*

Such words as these are called **adverbs**. You can remember this name by thinking that they are words that we *add* to *verbs*. There is one thing that you will notice about them at once, and that is that they all end in *ly* (except the word *well*). You will then notice that if we take away the *ly*, what remains is an adjective. The adverbs that you see above are those that answer the question ' How ? ' and they are called adverbs of **manner** because they tell you in what *manner* or way something is done.

§358. A very large number of adjectives can be changed into adverbs of manner if we add *ly* to them. ~~Let~~ Let us turn the following adjectives into adverbs of manner :

Accidental, active, angry, brave, bright, calm, cheap, clear, clever, comfortable, complete, correct, curious, entire, equal, exact, faint, fair, foolish, gentle, glad, happy, lazy, natural,

nice, polite, proud, quiet, real, regular, safe, selfish, separate, simple, smooth, soft, sudden, true, willing, wonderful.

As you probably expected, *y* at the end of adjectives must be changed into *i* before we add the *-ly*. When the adjective ends in *le* we simply change the *e* into a *y*. The adjective *true* becomes *truly*.

WHEN

§359. Now how can we give answers in one word to the question 'When?'?

§360. We can form any number of answers with two or more words in them, such as *on Sunday*, *at one o'clock* or *a long time ago*, but there are few one-word answers. The only common ones are :

now, then, yesterday, to-day, to-morrow, to-night, after, afterwards, before, directly, immediately, presently, soon, shortly, early, late, later, lately, already, once.

These are called, as you may easily imagine, adverbs of time. ✎ Now please make ten sentences each containing an adverb of time.

HOW OFTEN

§361. Here is another group of adverbs :

always, generally, usually, frequently, often, sometimes, rarely, seldom, ever, never.

Because they have something to do with time, people usually call them adverbs of time, but I think you will find it easier to give them their real name and call them adverbs of **frequency**, because they do not really answer the question 'When?' but 'How often?' (or 'How frequently?'). (If somebody asked you 'When do you go to bed?' 'I often go to bed' would be a rather funny answer, wouldn't it?)

§362. Besides, a sentence may have answers to both 'When' ? and 'How often ?' in the same sentence, each with its proper position in the sentence :

I *rarely* saw him *afterwards*. I *never* went there *late*.
I have *often* seen him *lately*. He *always* came here on *Sunday*. We *usually* met at *ten o'clock*.

WHERE

§363. Answers to the question 'Where ?' are generally made up of two or more words such as *in London*, *in the garden*, *on the top*, or *on the other side of the street*, but there are a few adverbs which will serve as answers, such as *here*, *there*, *somewhere*, *everywhere*, *far*. These are, of course, **adverbs of place**. But many of the **adverbial particles** that we shall examine in §§376-390 may be used as adverbs of place.

HOW . . .


§364. We now come to a rather different class of adverbs. The following examples will show you how different they are from those we have seen so far.

It is **very** large. They are **rather** small. It is **too** high. They are **quite** ready. They are not long **enough**. It is **nearly** white. They are **almost** ready. This one is **more** interesting. It is **as** bad as the other. It is not so easy. They are **most** useful.


§365. These are really answers to such questions as 'How large ?' 'How small ?' 'How high ?' etc. You will notice that all of them (except one) are put in front of adjectives to show us in what *degree* the thing is what the adjective tells us it is, and they are called **adverbs of degree**. One of them, however, is put *after* the adjective. Which one is it ? Put it in front of the adjective to see how funny it sounds when it is in the wrong place.

§366. Here are some more adverbs of degree :

terribly, entirely, completely, almost, just, less, hardly, slightly, thoroughly.

§367.  Let us put one of these to replace each dash in the following sentences :

1. This is — difficult. 2. It is — troublesome. 3. They are — dirty. 4. It is — right. 5. It is — cold. 6. He was — unhappy. 7. They were — destroyed. 8. This is — wrong. 9. It is — good. 10. I am — ready.

§368. But adverbs of degree will do more than this. In the following examples you will see another use for them.  Can you tell me what it is ?

He ran *very* quickly.

They wrote *rather* carelessly.

You are working *too* slowly.


She is not doing it *so* well now.

We followed *almost* immediately.

They *hardly* ever come.

We see them *less* frequently now.

They went to bed *terribly* late.

§369. The adverbs of degree are here printed in *italics*, and they modify the words printed in *thick type*. What are these words printed in thick type ? Why, they are adverbs ! So we have here adverbs that modify adverbs —and that is this second use of adverbs of degree.  Can you find some more examples, such as *very successfully* ?

§370. Here is still another use of adverbs of degree. What sort of words do they modify here ?

He *hardly* knows anything.


They *nearly* died of hunger.

You should listen *more* and talk *less*.

I know him *slightly*.

We *quite* understand.

I *rather* think so.

Well, *hardly* modifies *knows* ; *nearly* modifies *died* ; *more* modifies *listen* ; *less* modifies *talk*.  What words do *slightly*, *quite* and *rather* modify ? So we see that adverbs of degree may modify not only adjectives but also verbs.

§371. Another thing you should remember, too, is that some adverbs of degree modify adjectives and adverbs but not verbs. We can say *It is very good*, or *He works very well*, but we cannot say *He works very* ; we have to say *He works very hard* or *very much*. We can say *It is too quick*, or *He walks too quickly*, but we cannot say *He walks too*¹ ; we have to say *He walks too much*. So when your teacher asks you what is wrong with such sentences as *The wind blows very*, you will say that *very* is an adverb of degree that is never used to modify verbs.

OTHER ADVERBS

§372. Here are some more examples of adverbs :

You don't like them and I don't like them **either**.

Let us take them **both**.

Let us go, **then**.

First, let us read this.

It's very good **indeed**.

I gave him what he asked for, and **yet** he was not satisfied.

We **last** saw him yesterday.

I hope you have not been waiting **long**.

When shall we be seeing you **next** ?

It was late, and **so** I went to bed.

I **never** said anything of the sort.

He is **only** a boy.

Just a moment, please.

He is **not** here.

Did he come ?—**Yes**.

Did he come ?—**No**.

¹ We must remember here that there is another word *too* that means *also*. We can of course say *I walk, and he walks, too*.

§373. All sorts of names are used by grammarians to describe these different sorts of adverbs, but I don't think we need trouble about these now. It is enough for you to know that when you meet with words like these you may call them just *adverbs*. In some cases they modify the whole sentence, as when we say '*Perhaps* he will come.' *Yes* and *no* take the place of sentences. When we say *He is only a boy*, or *It was just the wind*, etc., the adverbs (*only*, *just*, etc.) seem to be modifying *nouns* !

THE POSITION OF ADVERBS

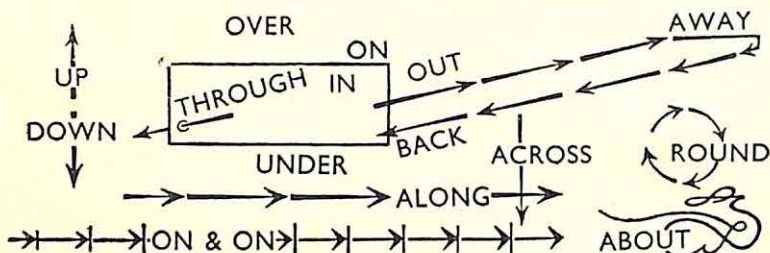
§374. Exactly where to put adverbs into a sentence is a matter that needs particular study, and we shall speak about this later. You might notice now, however, that adverbs like *always*, *often*, *still*, *nearly*, *hardly*, *seldom*, *never*, are put before ordinary finites but after the anomalous finites that we read about in Chapter 5. The following table will make this clear :

	Anomalous Finites	Adverbs such as 'always'	Ordinary Finites	
I	am	always		here.
We		always	come	here.
He	can	still		see me.
She		still	sees	me.
I	have	never		been there.
You		often	went	there.

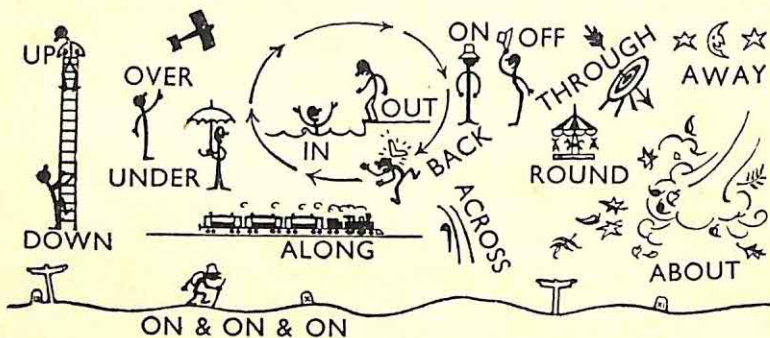
§375. Now take a piece of paper and rule it as above to make five columns. Then take the following groups of words and arrange each of them in such a way as to make sentences :

1. ready, nearly, we, are.
2. always, be, they, here, will.
3. still, lives, London, in, she.
4. see, hardly, can, I, them.
5. busy, we, always, are.
6. rains, it, seldom.

§376.



§377. Now what are these words? Prepositions? Well, many of them do happen to be prepositions *when they are used as prepositions*. But we are now going to talk about them not as prepositions but as something else.



§378. Let me make this clear :

Here the words are used as prepositions

He is **in** the house.
Put your hat **on** your head.
Take the ring **off** your finger.
The cat is climbing **up** the tree.

Here the words are not used as prepositions

He has gone **in**.
Put your hat **on**.
Take your ring **off**.
The cat is climbing **up**.

Here the words are used as prepositions

The water is running **down** the wall.

The end passes **through** the hole.

If you can't throw it **over** the fence, push it **under** the fence.

Let's walk **along** the street.

Don't walk **across** the street.

The man is going **round** the corner.

He spent his time walking **about** the street.

Here the words are not used as prepositions

The water is running **down**.

The end passes **through**.

If you can't throw it **over**, push it **under**.

Let's walk **along**.

Don't walk **across**.

The wheel is going **round**.

He spent his time walking **about**.

As for *out*, *away* and *back*, they never are prepositions at all (but we can make such compound prepositions as *out of*, *away from*, or *back to*).

§379. Now all these words (and a few more) are **adverbs**. But in many ways these adverbs seem *different* from all other adverbs ; they seem to form a group or party of their own. For this reason they are often given a special name to mark them off from ordinary adverbs, and the name is **Adverbial Particles**.

§380. Here is one of the things that make them different from ordinary adverbs :

They can be used this way : and they can be used this way :

He went **out**.

They come **back**.

The bird flew **away**.

You go **in**.

Out he went !

Back they come !

Away flew the bird !

In you go !

§381. — Let us take the following sentences and change them in such a way as to be like the sentences on the right-hand side.

1. The man jumped up.
2. The basket of eggs fell down.

3. The tortoise walked on. 4. The runners started off.
5. He ran in. 6. They sprang out. 7. We came out. 8. I went round and round.

Did you notice that the words in sentences 1 to 4 are arranged in a different way from those in sentences 5 to 8? Can you say why they are arranged in a different way ?

§382. There are a few adverbs other than adverbial particles, you will notice, that we can put in these two way—for instance, *here* and *there* ; we can say *He comes here*, and *Here he comes !* *The letter is here*, and *Here is the letter !* *He goes there*, and *There he goes !*

§383. Another curious way of using these adverbial particles is shown in such forms as *Away with him !* *Off with his head !* *Up with it !*

§384. Here are some sentences that show how these adverbial particles can be combined with *here* and *there*.

Come **in here** out of the rain. Put the others **up there** out of the way. Come **over here**, please. Look **over there** at all those men. You will find the house **round here**.

§385. Can you make some more sentences like these ?

§386. These adverbial particles, too, seem to like being used with *right* and *just* :

I knocked the nail **right in** (as far as it would go).

It is only **just in** (and ought to go in a little further),

and even in such combinations as

You will see it **just up there** (not very far up).

It is **right over there** (as far as you can see).

He lives **just round here** (quite near).


Don't you think that with these adverbial particles we

can make wonderfully lively sentences—and such natural sentences, too !

§387. Another thing that makes these adverbial particles so interesting is the way they combine with verbs so as to form useful **compound verbs** :

Verbs combined with adverbial particles : *meaning the same thing as these rarer and more difficult verbs :*


To go (or come) in.	To enter.
To go away.	To depart.
To go (or come) up.	To ascend.
To go (or come) down.	To descend.
To give something up.	To abandon something.
To think something over.	To consider something.
To put something off.	To postpone something.
To send (or give) a book back.	To return a book.
To break something down.	To demolish something.


§388.  See how many compound verbs you can make from the following tables :

to go	}	{	in
to come			out
to run			away
to jump			back
to stand			up
to sit			down
to get			on
to hurry			off
to put	}	{ something }	in
to push			out
to pull			away
to keep			back
to look			up
to find			down
to take			on
to burn			off
		{ somebody }	

§389. In fact, I don't know what we should do without

these adverbial particles. Have you anything like them in your language ?

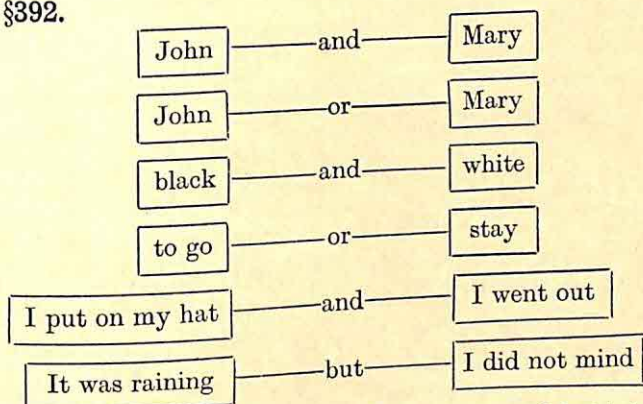
§390.  Which are the adverbial particles in the story of the two men and the bear (§44) ?

§391.  Take a story from your reader and pick out all the adverbs in it. In each case say what sort of adverbs they are.

CHAPTER 9

WORDS THAT JOIN WORDS OR SENTENCES TOGETHER

§392.



§393. See how nicely the words *and*, *or* and *but* join (or *connect*) what is on their left to what is on their right. It is not surprising that these words are called **connectives**—and it is about connectives that we are going to talk in this chapter. The three words that you see above are the very simplest of the connectives; they just join together two words or two sentences or two bits of sentences.

§394. There are many different sorts of connectives—and most of them are not quite so easy to understand and to use as the three we have seen. The most important

connectives are those called **conjunctions**, and these three words are among them. Grammarians call them **co-ordinating** conjunctions so as to make a difference between them and the **subordinating** conjunctions that we shall see a little later.

§395. Let us examine these three sentences and note the words printed in *italics* :

It must be *either* good or bad.

It is *neither* wood nor stone.


It is *both* good and cheap.

Here we have what we might call **double conjunctions**. We could do without them and say simply *It must be good or bad*, *It is not wood and not stone*, *It is good and cheap*, but by adding *either*, *neither* (and changing *or* into *nor*), and *both* we give more force to what we are saying.

AS AND THAN

§396. The two connectives *as* and *than* form a class of conjunctions of their own. We may call them conjunctions of the **comparative** if we want to call them by any name at all. (When we learn grammar, you see, we have to learn a lot of special grammar-names like these.) The following arrangement will show you how the conjunctions *as* and *than* are used, and why they are called the conjunctions of the comparative :

	<i>as</i> or <i>than</i>	
This box is not so large	<i>as</i>	that one.
That one is larger	<i>than</i>	this one.
It is as high	<i>as</i>	a mountain.
My brother is taller	<i>than</i>	I am.
I have done more	<i>than</i>	you have.
It is as soft	<i>as</i>	butter.
I like it better	<i>than</i>	(I like) anything in the world.

§397.  Now will you write five sentences with *as* in them and five sentences with *than* in them. But be

careful about the *as*, because there are several different words '*as*' and the conjunction *as* is only one of them. In two of the above sentences you will see an *as* that is *no* the conjunction but the adverb of degree that we read about in Chapter 8. (There is even another conjunction *as* that we shall see later.)

TEN MORE CONJUNCTIONS

§398.

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
He will do it		he has time.
I always see him		he comes home.
Speak to him		I am there.
You had better do that		you are free.
That cannot be done		it is really too late.
He will let you see it		we have gone away.
Tom comes here		we are with him.
Do this		it is not quite ready.
We can finish that		it is too difficult for you.
We cannot begin that		there is time.
I shall write a letter		we come back.
Nobody will know		he is here.
It is no good doing it		we are home.
Wait		you say 'yes.'

§399. There are 1,960 sentences in the above table, that is, if we combine everything in column 1 with everything in column 2 and then combine that with everything in column 3. Most of them will probably be perfectly good sentences and will mean something. For instance :

Do this whenever you are free.


Tom comes here if we are home.

That cannot be done until we are home.

But many of them will make little or no sense. For instance :

Speak to him after there is time.

I always see him unless we are with him.

§400.  Now what I want you to do is to write at least ten sentences from the above table so as to use each of the ten words in column 2. You can write twenty or thirty or more if your teacher asks you to do so. Beginning with *if*, you can write :

He will do it *if* he is here, or

We cannot begin that *if* it is not quite ready.

Then you will choose a good sentence with *when* in it, and then one with *while* in it, and so on.

*

*

*

§401. Now while you were choosing and writing these sentences you must have noticed particularly the little words in column 2—and that is why I wanted you to choose and write the sentences.

§402. These ten little words are connectives—of course you guessed that at once. But what sort of connectives ? Well, they are called **subordinating conjunctions**. If you want to know why they are called by such a long and difficult name, I will give you the reason—but it is not really necessary for you to learn the reason just yet.

§403. You see, each of these 1,960 sentences is a **compound** sentence, made up of two parts called **clauses**. Column 1 consists of what are called **principal clauses**, and columns 2 and 3 together make what are called **subordinate clauses**. So as these ten conjunctions are used to form subordinate clauses we call them **subordinating conjunctions**. (All conjunctions are connectives, remember !)

§404. But there are two other things I should like you to notice and remember about the table. One is this, that you will never (or hardly ever) find the words *shall* or *will* in column 3. The other thing is that if we like

we can start the sentence at column 2 and say, for instance :

If he has time, he will let you see it.

In other words, we can put the subordinate clause first and so start with a subordinating conjunction. Try them and you will see that this can be done. But when you start the sentence with a subordinate clause, please put a comma after the subordinate clause.

MORE SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

§405.

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
I don't do that	{ because as since so although }	I don't like it.
I am sleepy		I shall see him to-morrow.
I shall not go now		you have come so late.
I went to bed late last night		it is really easy.
I got up early this morning		I bought it.
It was very good		it is too difficult.
You bought it		you always do it.
It looks difficult		I went to bed late last night.
I need not write to him		there will be no time.
Don't give me that		it was so cheap.
I will do it		I am very sleepy this morning.

§406. There are 555 sentences here. Some of them are good sentences and make sense ; others make little sense or no sense at all. Now please write out at least five sentences that make sense. Your first sentence should have the word *because* in it, the second one should have *as* in it, and so on. The five words in column 2 are, of course, conjunctions ; like the ten you saw before, they are subordinating conjunctions. There are two little differences, however, between these five and the other ten. When you use any of these five, you may, if you like, put *will* or *shall* in column 3.

§407. But let me tell you something about the words *as* and *since* that are among the five. When they are used in this way, they mean the same thing (or nearly the same thing) as *because*. Instead of using the word *although* you may use the shorter word *though*. If you like, you may begin the sentences with *as*, *since* and *although*, but you had better not begin a sentence with *because*, and you can't begin any of these sentences with *so*. There's quite a lot of things to remember !

§408. There's one more thing I want you to remember, and that is to put a comma after any word that comes before *since* and *so*. You may put a comma before *because*, *as*, and *although*, but this is not really necessary.

§409. There is another subordinating conjunction very similar to those we have already seen above, but it does not quite fit into the above tables and needs examples of its own. It is the conjunction *since* that means *from the time when*—not the *since* that means *because*.¹ Here are some good examples.

I have been busy *since* I saw you last.

Since I came here, I have had no time.

What have you been doing *since* I met you last year ?

WHEN, WHILE, BEFORE, ETC., FOLLOWED BY -ING

§410. In some sentences it is rather difficult to know whether the words *when*, *while*, *before*, *after*, *since* and *until* are subordinating conjunctions or prepositions ; they seem to be both or something between the two. It

¹ It is well to remember that *since* is sometimes a preposition (I have not seen him *since* then), sometimes an adverb (I have not seen him *since*), and sometimes a subordinating conjunction meaning either *because* or *from the time when*.

is when they are followed by the *-ing* form. Here are some examples :

While staying here he did a lot of work.


He said good-bye *before starting*.

It is not good to go into the water *after eating*.

Since reading that book, I have thought a good deal about it.

Until seeing London I had no idea what it was like.

While staying, before starting, after eating, since reading, until seeing, is really another way of saying *while he stayed, before he started, after one eats, since I read, until I saw*.

§411.  Change the following sentences in the same way, leaving out the subject and putting the first verb into the *-ing* form :

1. Since I came back, I have only seen my friend once.
2. Before he went out, he washed his hands.
3. Until I started this book, I did not know much about English grammar.
4. After I did that, I did something else.
5. While he worked, he sang.
6. When you walk on the ice you must take care not to fall.
7. After you come in you should shut the door.
8. Before he cut the fruit he cleaned his knife.


THAT


§412. We must now learn something about the conjunction *that*. It is not at all the same *that* as the one which you read about in the chapter on determinatives. The determinative *that* is pronounced so as to rhyme with *hat* or *cat*, but the conjunction *that* is nearly always pronounced as if it were written *tht*. The conjunction *that* is quite different from all the other conjunctions and it is used in a different way from all the others. The following sentences will give you a good idea as to when and how it is used :

I know **that** it is true.

I think **that** it will be all right.

He hopes **that** he can come.
He said **that** it was impossible.
Did you notice **that** the door was open?
I feel certain **that** he will come.
Are you sure **that** he can do it?
I am afraid **that** it is going to rain.
I was sorry **that** the weather was so bad.
I am so glad **that** you liked it.

§413.  Please write ten other sentences like these, beginning: *I believe that . . . I don't expect that . . . He supposes that . . . It is a good thing that . . . He promised that . . . He was very much afraid that . . . It is true that . . . Did you know that . . . I see that . . . I heard one day that . . .*

§414.  Now read the sentences above and the sentences that you have made, but without saying the word *that*. Are these sentences all right without the word *that*? Yes, they are. In fact some people when they speak or write leave this word *that* unsaid or unwritten.

WHO AND WHICH

§415. I now want you to look at these four pictures and to notice particularly the words printed in thick type in the four sentences that follow them.



The man **who** caught me was very fat.



The dog **which** caught me was very fat.




The man **whom** I caught was very fat.



The dog **which** I caught was very fat.

§416. The three chief things that you will have noticed are :

- (a) That *who(m)* is used for a person and that *which* is used for something not a person.
- (b) That *who* is used for the person who does something and *whom* for the person to whom something is done.
- (c) That *which*, unlike *who*, remains the same instead of changing its form.

§417.  To see whether you can understand these three things, put *who*, *whom* or *which* in the place of the dashes :

1. The fisherman — is sitting by the river is a friend of mine.
2. The tree — fell down in the storm was an oak.
3. The tree — I cut down yesterday was an oak.
4. The robber — Ali Baba saw was a rich man.
5. The robber — killed Kasim was a cruel man.
6. The house — you see over there is very old.

§418. These three words *who*, *whom* and *which* are called **relatives** because they *relate* to (or refer to, or are connected with) a noun that comes somewhere in the sentence before them. These words stand in the place of the noun that comes before them, and so they are **pronouns**,

relative pronouns ; but as they are used to connect parts of the sentences together, they are also *connectives* (but they are not among the words called *conjunctions*).

§419. The four sentences that we began with can be shown in this way :

The man was very fat.

who caught me

The dog was very fat.

which caught me

The man was very fat.

whom I caught

The dog was very fat.

which I caught

§420. Now the next thing I want you to notice is that instead of using *who*, *whom* or *which* we may use the word *that*. You must be quite tired of reading about the word 'that.' This is the fourth time that we have spoken about it. When we first saw it, it was a determinative modifying a noun, then it was a determinative noun substitute, next it was a (subordinating) conjunction, and now it is a relative pronoun !

§421. I wonder whether you can read and understand the following sentence properly :

He said that : that that that that that man used was a different sort of that from that that that that other man used.
I think this is the only case in which we can use the same

word six times one after the other. You will understand it if I write it out for you like this :

He said { *this* : } (that) { *the* } 'that' { *which* } { *the* } man used
 { *that* : } { *that* } { *that* } { *that* } { *that* }
 was a different sort of 'that' from { *the* } 'that' { *which* } { *the* }
 { *that* } { *that* } { *that* } { *that* } other
 man used.

Here you see the word *that* used in six different senses, and from the words which may take its place you will see when it is a noun modifier, a noun substitute, a conjunction, a relative, or a noun.

§422. The next thing that you should notice about the four sentences under the pictures is that in the case of sentences 3 and 4, instead of using *whom*, *which* or *that* you may use—no word at all ! You may say *The man I caught was very fat*, and *The dog I caught was very fat*. So here the relative pronoun takes the form of no word at all.¹

TO WHOM, FROM WHICH, ETC.

§423. Sometimes relative pronouns are used with prepositions (*to*, *from*, *for*, *with*, etc.). Then we must use only the relative pronouns *whom* and *which* (never *that*) as in these examples :

The man **to whom** I spoke was very fat.
 The dog away **from which** I ran was very fat.²
 The people **with whom** I came were very kind.
 The lady **for whom** I waited came very late.
 The house **in which** he lives is his own.

§424. But this is what we can do (and this is generally what people do, especially in speaking), take away the

¹ Just in the same way as the determinative is no word at all when we say *These are* [] *books* or *This is* [] *water*.


² In this example you see that *ran* and *away* really form the compound verb *to run away*. See §387.

whom or *which* and put the preposition *after the verb*¹ like this :

The man I spoke **to** was very fat.
The dog I ran away **from** was very fat.
The people I came **with** were very kind.
The lady I waited **for** came very late.
The house he lives **in** is his own.

§425. Or if we like we can add *whom*, *which* or *that*, and say :

The man **whom** (or **that**) I spoke *to* was very fat.
The dog **which** (or **that**) I ran away *from* was very fat ;
and so on.

§426.  Take away the words *whom* or *which* and then put the preposition after the verb, as in the sentences of §424.

1. The book for which I asked was very interesting. 2. The chair on which I was sitting was wet. 3. The man on whom I called was busy. 4. The tree under which I am sitting is very old. 5. Who is the man to whom you were talking ? 6. This is a picture of the place about which we were reading. 7. This is the box in which I keep it. 8. The people with whom I live are very kind. 9. This is the box out of which I took the money.

§427. There is one more relative pronoun, and that is *whose*. It is used like this :

The man **whose** house you saw is very fat.
The people **whose** garden we passed just now live in London.
But we can use *whose* only when we are talking of persons. If we are talking of animals or things, we have to use this form :

The dog **of which** we have spoken was fat.
The story **of which** we have read the first chapter is an interesting one.

¹ See §344.

WHERE, WHEN AND WHY AS RELATIVES

§428. *Where* and *when* are very often used in the same way as the relative pronouns. Here are some examples :

The place **where** we stayed last year is not far from here.

That is the house **where** I was born.

Was that the day **when** I met you ?

That must have been the time **when** I was away.

That is the reason **why** I was so worried.

You see that these sentences can be arranged in the same way as those with *who*, *whom* and *which* :

The place is not far from here.

where we stayed last year.

Was that the day

when I met you ?

That is the reason

why I was so worried.

§429. These words are called **relative adverbs**. Instead of using them we may use *which* with suitable prepositions, as for instance :

The place **in which** we stayed is not far from here.


Was that the day **on which** I met you ?

That is the reason **for which** I was so worried.

Or, as the following sentences show : the relative adverbs *when* and *why* (but not *where*) can be left out altogether :

Was that the day I met you ?

That is the reason I was so worried.

§430.  Now to see whether you understand all this, please write out (or say) the following sentences, replacing the words in *italics* by *where*, *when* or *why*.

1. That is the house *in which* I lived. 2. Was that the day *on which* you came? 3. This is the spot *at which* the accident took place. 4. Is that the reason *for which* you went away? 5. This is the moment *at which* the clock will strike. 6. The reason *for which* I came is this. 7. Was that the year *in which* there was such a great storm?

§431. In each of the following examples you will find two statements (or a statement divided into two parts). If we write these examples in a different way, using the relatives *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, *whose* or *where*, we can join the statements together and make *one* sentence of each. In doing so we shall have to take away the words printed in italics. For instance in example 4 we shall write *I know a field in which we can go and play*. How shall we re-write the others?

1. There was once a king; *and he* had a large palace.
2. There was once a horse; *and it* was very old. 3. Tom is a boy; *and he* lives near here. 4. I know a field; *and we* can go and play in *it*. 5. This is the book; I bought *it* yesterday. 6. That is a boy; *and his* father is ill. 7. This is the place; there was an accident *here*. 8. There is a tree; *it* was cut down last year. 9. That is the one; you wanted *it*. 10. Those are the people; I saw *them*.

WH . . .

§432. There is one more sort of connective word that we shall have to learn about, but before doing so let us look at the following sentences, particularly at the words printed in **thick** type:

What is that?

Who is that?

Whose is that?

What did you do?

Whom did you see?

Whose book did you take?

Which is that ?

Where is it ?

When was that ?

How was it ?

How big is the box ?

Why is it ?

Which book did you want ?

Where did you put it ?

When did you go ?

How did you do that ?

How big does the box look ?

Why did he come back so soon ?

§433. All these, you see, are words that we ask questions with. In grammar we have a special name for question-asking. This name is **interrogative** (because *to interrogate* means *to ask questions*). So we can call all these words *interrogative words*. There are nine of these words ; they all begin with *wh* (except the word *how*), and we put them at the beginning of the sentence. *What, who, whose and which* are called **interrogative pronouns**, and *where, when, how and why* are called **interrogative adverbs**, but what we have to note here is simply that all interrogative words when used in a certain way form a class of connectives.

§434. Here are examples of them used in that particular way :

Tell me **what** it is.

I want to know **who** that man is.

Do you know **where** he lives ?

I wonder **when** he will come.

I can't understand **how** you do it.

§435. When the interrogative words are used in this way they are often called **conjunctives** (not 'conjunctions'—which are different) or **conjunctive words**.

§436. Now there is just one conjunctive which is not an interrogative word—that is to say, it is not a word that we ask questions with. But it begins with *wh* all the same ; it is the word **whether**, as used in such sentences as

Tell me **whether** it is here.

I want to know **whether** that is true.

I wonder **whether** he will come.

§437. So with **whether** we have ten¹ conjunctives. Let us make up ten or twenty sentences containing these conjunctives. The following table will help us.

Tell me I don't know Did you tell him I wonder Do you understand Ask him I am not certain	}	what	}	it is.
		what book		he is looking at.
		who		they are here ?
		whom		people do that.
		to whom		high it is.
		whose		he gave it.
		whose book		they are.
		which (one)		
		where		
		when		
		why		
		how		
		whether		

§438. Here is a curious use of all the conjunctives except *why*. You see them here followed by *to* and the infinitive :

I don't know **what** to do.

Tell him **where** to go.

Do you know **when** to start ?

I can't tell you **how** to do it.

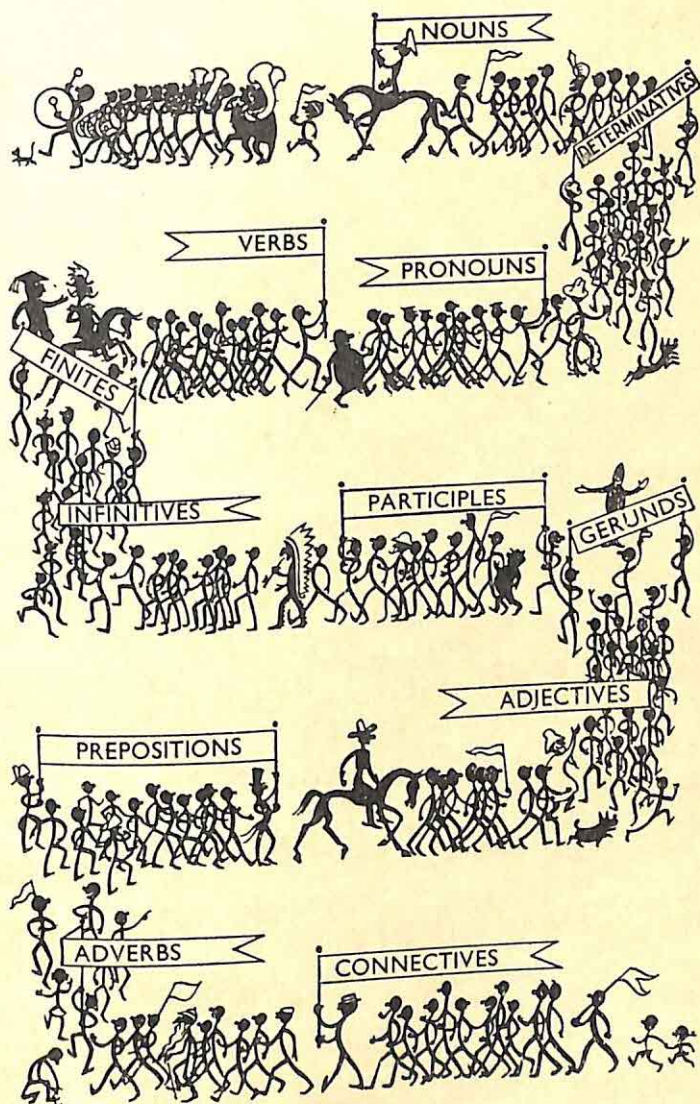
Please ask him **whom** to go and see.

etc.

§439. These, then, are the different sorts of connectives that we have been talking about and learning to use :

1. *Co-ordinating conjunctions* (such as **and**, **or**, **but**).
2. *Conjunctions of the comparative* (**as** and **than**).
3. *Subordinating conjunctions* (such as **if**, **when**, **while**, **before**, **because**, **since**).
4. *The special subordinating conjunction* **that**.
5. *Relative pronouns and adverbs* (such as **which**, **who**, **that**, **when**).
6. *Conjunctives* (such as **what**, **who**, **when**, **where**, **whether**).

¹ But some people like to use instead of *whether* the word *if*. In that case *if* can be called a conjunctive, and that makes eleven conjunctives.



CHAPTER 10

DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

§440. If any learner of English said or wrote such funny sentences as :

You are happiness very ;

Always to here running that man ; he in very hurry
because ;

Tree big road across to fall,

you would say at once that he did not know how to build up English sentences. Now, the building up of sentences is called **syntax**, and this is one of the most important parts of grammar. Syntax tells us how sentences are made up of parts, and gives names to these parts. Syntax tells us how to put these parts together, and what sorts of words are found in them.

§441. The very first thing that we have to learn about syntax is that *a sentence has two chief parts to it—one called the **subject** and the other called the **predicate***. Here are some sentences divided into their two parts. When you look at them you will see at once what the names *subject* and *predicate* mean.

SUBJECT

PREDICATE

Birds	fly.
Tom	lives here.
The boy	goes to school every day.
This old man	went to the forest.
This	is a horse.

SUBJECT

PREDICATE

	It	is an old black horse.
The old black horse		is standing in a field.
	I	am ready.
	I	see you.
	He	has been doing that for a long time.
The man you met here yesterday		is ill.
	Nobody	knows.
	Seeing	is believing.
	To go	was easy.
To do your work badly and carelessly		is wrong.
	They	are getting old.
	We	gave it to him yesterday.

You will have seen at once that the subject names the person or thing that *does* something, that *is* something or *gets* to be something, and that the predicate tells you what he (or it) does, is, or gets to be.

§442. What other things do we notice when we look at these sentences ?

§443. Well, we see that both a subject and a predicate may be made up of one word only or of two or more words ; in fact they may each be as long as you like or as short as you like.

§444. We notice, too, that each predicate begins with a finite. (You remember what finites are ? If not, look at Chapter 5 again.)

§445. We notice that the subject may be :

1. A single noun.
2. A noun with *the* (or some other determinative) in front of it.

3. A noun with an *adjective* in front of it. (Which adjectives can you see in front of nouns in the column marked *subject* ?)
4. A personal pronoun. (Which personal pronouns can you see ?)
5. A noun-substitute, such as *nobody*.
6. A gerund, such as *seeing*.
7. An infinitive with *to* before it. (Which are the two examples ?)
8. A noun modified by a subordinate clause. (Do you remember the subordinate clauses that we talked about in Chapter 9 ? (Which of these subjects contains the subordinate clause ?)

§446. We notice that the predicate may be :

1. One single word (and that must be a finite).
2. A finite with one or more words after it.
3. That the words coming after the finite may be of almost any sort.

§447. Now, please, make ten or twenty sentences, arranging them in two parts, subject and predicate, as we did above.

§448. All the seventeen sentences in §441 start with the subject, you will notice, and indeed most English sentences are built up in this way, with the subject coming first and the predicate after it. Now take some story in your reading-book and see how many of the sentences are arranged like this. Copy these sentences on a sheet of paper ruled like this :

SUBJECT

PREDICATE

§449. But there are other sorts of sentences which are not arranged in this way. In your reading-book you probably found some sentences in which the subject came *after* the predicate, or perhaps *in the middle of* the predicate. You may even have found some sentences with no subject in them at all !

§450. Here are some sentences that have no subject :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
	Wait.
	Come here.
	Give it to me.

You will notice that each of them begins with an imperative finite (you remember what that is) ; they are the sort of sentences that we use when we tell people to do things ; they are **imperative sentences**.

So we may make the rule : **In imperative sentences there is generally ¹ no subject.**

§451. Here are some sentences in which the subject comes *after* the predicate :


PREDICATE	SUBJECT
Where are	you ?
What is	that ?
How is	your brother ?

In §§ 236, 237 we saw examples of this 'subject-inversion' and noted that the only sorts of finites that the subject can jump over in this way are the anomalous finites. Try to find any sentences of this sort in your reading-book.

¹ Generally no subject, but not *always*. For we can put the word *You* in front of a command if we like, and say *You come here !* or *You just wait until I catch you !* But this is rather a rough way of speaking, and it is better not to put *You* before a command.


§452. Here are some sentences in which the subject comes in the middle of the predicate.


ONE PART OF THE PREDICATE	SUBJECT	ANOTHER PART OF THE PREDICATE
What is	he	doing ?
Why did	the man	say that ?
Is	that	yours ?
What have	you	done now ?

 Try to find some sentences like these in your reading-book.

§453. But I don't want you to think that every time we ask a question we have to put the subject after the predicate. There is one sort of question in which the subject comes before the predicate in its proper place, like this :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
What	rises in the East ?
Who	came here ?
Which	is the best ?
Whose (hat)	is lying on the floor ?

for we must remember that question-words like *what*, *who*, *which* or *whose* may be the subject of a sentence.  You might now make some more sentences like these.

§454. In the seventeen sentences of §441 we note that the first word in the predicate is a finite.  Read out these seventeen finites, please.

§455. But the first word of a predicate is not always a finite.

Adverbs like *always*, *often*, *still* or *never* are put in front of the finite. We spoke of these adverbs in §§ 238 and 374, and noted that they come *in front of* ordinary finites

but *after* the twenty-four anomalous finites. Look at the following sentences and you will see what I mean :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
He	always comes here.
My brother	often says that.
I	still go to school.
They	never work.

Here you see these adverbs at the beginning of the predicate, coming before the finites.

§456. Now look at these sentences :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
He	is always coming here.
My brother	has often said that.
I	am still here.
They	are never ready.
We	can always do that.

Here we see these adverbs coming after the anomalous finites *is, has, am, are, can*. Now make some more sentences like those shown in §455, with the adverbs in front of the finites. And now make some more sentences like those above, with the adverbs coming after the anomalous finites.

§457. In §236 we said that the only finites that can change places with the subject are the twenty-four anomalous finites. This is generally true, but there are two cases in which other finites come before the subject. The commonest case in which this happens is when we begin a sentence with *in, out, away, back, up, down, on, off* and the other adverbial particles, as we saw in §380.

PREDICATE	SUBJECT
Down came	the tree !
Away ran	the two men !
In rushed	the soldiers !

§458. We noticed, too, that we can do the same thing with *here* and *there* :

PREDICATE	SUBJECT	PREDICATE
Here comes	the train !	
There goes	my hat	into the water !

§459. There is another (and not so important a) case in which the subject comes after a finite that is not anomalous. But this is only in the sort of English used in telling stories. Here are some examples :

PREDICATE	SUBJECT
' Oh no,' answered	the man.
' Good evening,' said	Tom.
' Why are you so sad ? ' asked	the fairy.

§460. In these cases the subject is generally not a personal pronoun, although sometimes we see in stories such sentences as '*Come here,*' said *I* (but if *I* were you *I* should not make sentences like that).

§461. We have examined all sorts of sentences and have seen how they can be divided into two parts : subject and predicate. We have seen that the predicate is sometimes a finite with no words after it :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
Birds	fly.
Nobody	knows.

and that sometimes the predicate is a finite with other words coming after it. The words in the predicate that come after the finite are called the **complement** (because they make the sentence *complete*) :

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	FINITE	COMPLEMENT
Birds	fly	
Tom	lives	here.
The boy	goes	to school every day.
This old man	went	into the forest.
This	is	a horse.
I	am	ready.
I	see	you.
We	gave	it to him yesterday.
You	will	come here.



THIS OLD MAN GOES TO SCHOOL EVERY DAY


Now take a piece of paper, please, rule it with lines in the same way, make ten more sentences and write them out with the words arranged in their proper places.

§462. If we want to show the subject coming after the finite, we can set out the sentences in this way, with the subject in the middle of the predicate :

PREDICATE		
FINITE	SUBJECT	COMPLEMENT
↓		↓
Are	you	ready ?
Is	this	a horse ?
Do	birds	fly ?
Will	you	come here ?

§463. Take another piece of paper, please, rule the lines as above, make ten more sentences like these and write them out with the words arranged in their proper places. You will notice that all your finites will be anomalous finites. For the present do not trouble to

write sentences beginning with *what*, *who*, *which*, or other question-words ; begin with finites.


§464.  Now rule six columns on a sheet of paper like this :

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Anomalous Finites.	Subject.	Always, etc.	Finites of both sorts.	Always, etc.	Comple- ment.

Then take the following twelve sentences and write out each one on the ruled paper :

1. That is right.
2. Is it right ?
3. They are always ready.
4. Fishes swim in water.
5. He always eats apples.
6. He is always eating apples.
7. We are still here.
8. The king spoke to his chief officer.
9. Will you take this ?
10. You can do that to-morrow.
11. Are your friends always so late ?
12. Will the others still be here ?

§465. Sentence 1. **That is right.** *That* is subject, and comes into column 2 ; *is* is a finite and comes into column 4 ; *right* belongs to the complement and comes into column 6. Sentence 2. **Is it right ?** *Is* is an anomalous finite at the beginning of the sentence, and so we put it into column 1 ; *it* is subject, and comes into column 2 ; *right*, as before, goes into column 6. Sentence 3. **They are always ready.** *They* is subject, so you know where to put it ; *are* is a finite, so you know where to put that ; as it is an anomalous finite, the adverb *always* comes after it, so we must put *always* into column 5. *Ready* is

the complement, and goes into column 6.  Now write out sentences 4 to 12 in the same way.

§466. I am now going to ask you to turn back to Chapter 5 and to read in §§226-231 about the word *not*. You will see that it can be used only with the twenty-four **anomalous finites**, and that it is generally put just after any of these twenty-four words.


§467. It is now time to learn a little more about this word *not* and where to put it in sentences. There are two ways of writing and pronouncing this word : one is *not* and the other is *n't*. When we write it as *n't* we join it up to the anomalous finite and pronounce the two as one word, like this :

is not	isn't	will not	won't
are not	aren't	would not	wouldn't
was not	wasn't	cannot	can't
were not	weren't	could not	couldn't
have not	haven't	may not	mayn't
has not	hasn't	might not	mightn't
had not	hadn't	must not	mustn't
do not	don't	ought not	oughtn't
does not	doesn't	need not	needn't
did not	didn't	dare not	daren't
shall not	shan't	used not	usedn't
should not	shouldn't		


§468. Please note particularly *shan't* for *shall not*, *won't* for *will not*, and *can't* for *cannot*.¹ Note, too, the pronunciation of *don't*.

Am not is generally written like this in two words, but it is often pronounced just like the word *aunt*, and some people write it as *aren't*.

¹ English people write *cannot* like this in one word, but in America it is generally written *can not* in two words.

§469.  Please write out these sentences, but putting *n't* in the place of *not* and making any other changes that may be necessary :

1. He has not anything for you.
2. They are not ready.
3. You cannot do that.
4. Can you not do that ?
5. Have you not seen him ?
6. We must not forget that.
7. Do you not like it ?
8. Why will they not come ?
9. Shall you not be there ?
10. Why did they not wait ?

§470.  Now rule a sheet of paper like this :

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Anomalous Finites	n't	Subject	Always, etc.	Finites of both sorts	not or n't	Always, etc.	Comple- ment

and copy the following sentences, taking care to put each word in the right column :

1. We never see him now.
2. The weather is not often as bad as this.
3. Isn't John there ?
4. The king was always buying new clothes.
5. Wait for me.
6. Aren't you frightened ?
7. Horses are animals.
8. Never do that.
9. He does not always understand.
10. Birds fly in the air.
11. Always speak the truth.
12. It is not always like that.

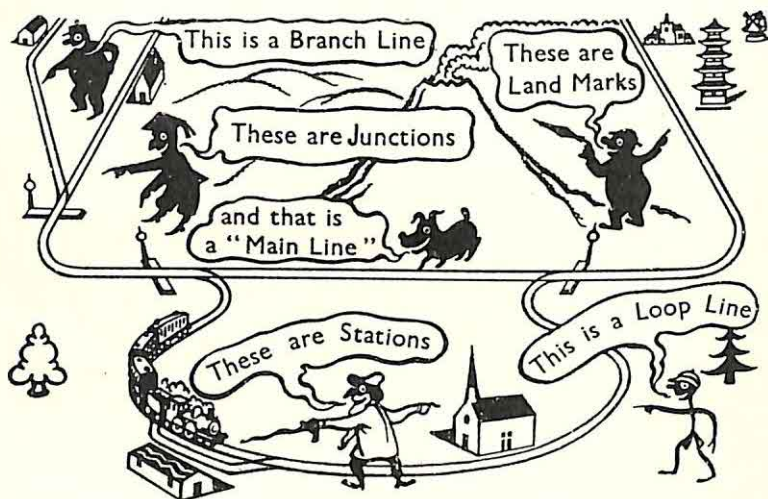
CHAPTER 11

DIFFERENT SORTS OF COMPLEMENTS

§471. In Chapter 10 we first noted that sentences are made up of two main parts : subject and predicate. We saw that the subject generally (but not always) comes before the predicate. We next noted that the predicate may be one single word—a finite, but that sometimes the finite is followed by other words called the complement. In this chapter we are going to see the different sorts of complements, what they are and what sort of words we put in them. We shall see that there are nine different sorts of complements, and that some of them are divided into two parts.

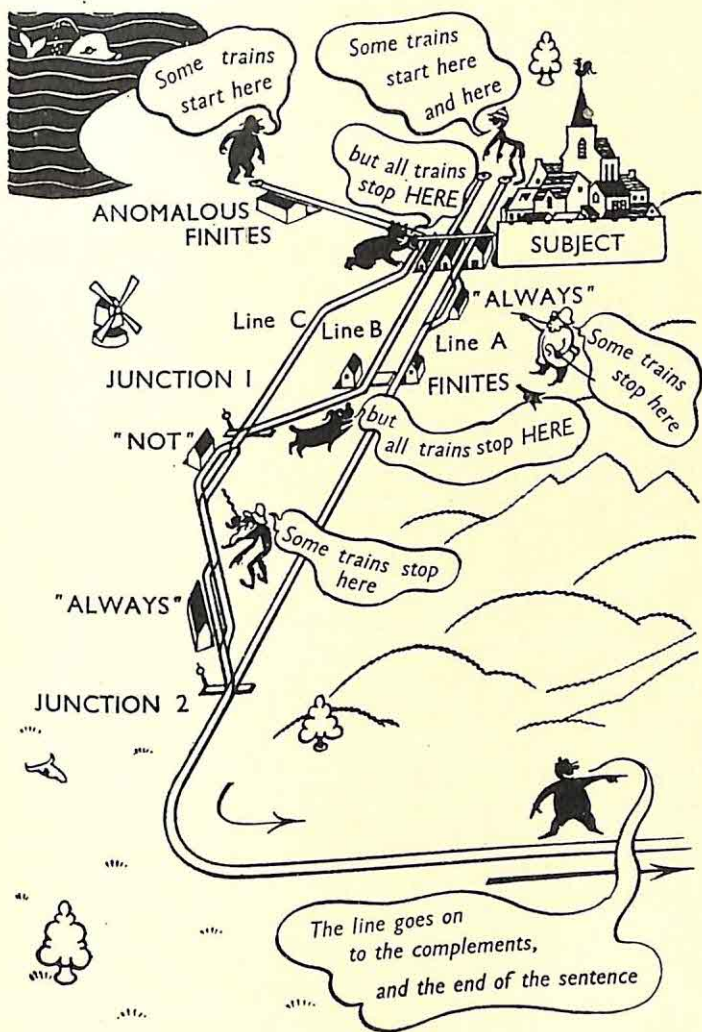
§472. It is rather difficult to understand and to remember all these, so to make them easier to learn and remember we shall now talk about sentences and their parts as if they were railway journeys, and show them in pictures and maps, marking the different lines, junctions and stations. For really sentences are something like railways : they start somewhere and they end somewhere ; and between the place where they start and the place where they end there are many branch lines and loop-

lines. The trains making the journeys go sometimes by one line and sometimes by another ; they pass along this branch line or round loop-lines, and the way they go is governed by the time-table and the signalmen working the signals.



§473. On p. 133 is a picture-map of the beginnings of English sentences.

§474. In this picture we see the three starting points of the sentence : (1) the Subject station (with trains running along Line A to the Finites *go, come, take, speak, see, know, etc.*) ; (2) the Subject station (with trains running along Line B to the Finites *am, is, are, have, has, shall, will, can, etc.*) ; and (3) the Anomalous Finites station (with trains running along Line C to the Subject station). We see how the trains may pass through the two *always* stations, and which trains may pass through the *not* station. We see Junction 1, where the Lines B and C join. We see Junction 2, where Lines A and F join. From here the line goes on towards the complements and the end of the sentence.



§475. Let us now look at the first four of the nine complements, and see what sort of sentences we can make with them. Here are four groups of sentences :


		<i>Predicate</i>		
	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite</i>	<i>Complements</i>	
Group 1	I	am	ready	} (This is the subject-complement)
	You	were	quite tired	
	That	is	a tree	
	These	are	mine	
Group 2	The dog	bites	the cat	} (This is the direct object)
	We	write	letters	
	Tom	sees	Jack	
	I	like	those	
Group 3	We	look	at it	} (This is the prepositional object)
	He	went	with his friend	
	I	spoke	to him	
	This	is	for you	
Group 4	I	live	there	} (This is the adverb-complement)
	John	came	here	
	The men	stayed	somewhere	
	We	went	away	

GROUP 1. THE SUBJECT-COMPLEMENT

§476. In the first of the four groups of sentences the finites are those of the verb *to be*,¹ and what comes after them are adjectives, adjective-substitutes, nouns and noun-substitutes. Such sentences as these do not say that somebody (or something) *does* something, but *is* something (or *seems* something, or *becomes* something). Here are some more examples (but not arranged as sentences) :

¹ But instead of the finites of the verb *to be* (*am, is, are, was, were*) we may find here the finites of the verbs *to seem, to become, to get* and other verbs of the same sort.

I	}	{	am, is, are	}	an animal.
You			was, were		very busy.
The man			seem, seems		a little girl.
My friends			seemed		animals.
Nobody					yours.
Mary					pleased with it.
A horse					unhappy. ☉
Horses					useful.
This book					in a hurry.
This					fond of it.

 Make ten or twenty sentences from this table, please.

§477. The words that come after the finites are called **subject-complements** because they *complete* what we want to say about the *subject* of the sentence.

GROUP 2. THE DIRECT OBJECT


§478. The sentences in Group 1 tell us what somebody (or something) is (or seems or gets to be); but those in Group 2 tell us what somebody (or something) *does*. The complements are nouns (with or without *a*, *the* or other determinatives) or noun-substitutes. You must pay great attention to these; you must be quite certain that you understand exactly what work they do in the sentence, and by what name they are called in grammar. Suppose, instead of saying *The dog bites the cat*, we said *The dog bites*; it makes a good sentence and the sentence tells us something that is true, for a dog certainly *bites*, and so do you, and so does anything that has teeth. But sometimes we want to say *what* the dog bites; the answer may be *the cat*, or *cats*, or *bones*, or whatever it is that dogs bite.

§479. In the same way we may very well say *We write*, for we do write, we often write; we have learned how to write. But what do we write? Well, among other things we write *letters*. So if somebody asks us 'What do we write?' we can answer '*Letters.*'

§480. 'Tom sees.' Yes, of course he sees. We all see if we have good eyes. But if somebody asks us *what* we see, we say 'I see *you*,' or 'I see *the tree*' (or whatever it is that we see). If we ask '*What* (or *whom*) does Tom see?' we may get the answer 'Tom sees *Jack*.'

§481. Everything that answers such questions as *What do you see? Whom did you see?* etc., is called the **direct object** of the sentence. Let us make this perfectly clear: Here are 140 questions; each one of them is asking for a direct object:

What	}	{	do you	{	see?
Whom			did you		hear?
Which one			does he		hit?
Whose			did he		meet?
			shall we		take?
			can they		etc.
			must I		
			etc.		

§482.  Now, please, write out twenty of these questions and answer each of them. In each of your answers you will find a direct object. For instance, here is a question:

Which one did he take?

A suitable answer would be *He took the largest one*, and *the largest one* is here a direct object. Another suitable answer could be *He took mine*, and *mine* is here a direct object.

§483. But such a question as *What is that?* does not ask for a direct object in the answer; and the answer *It is a tree* does not contain a direct object, but a subject-complement—it belongs to Group 1 alone.

§484. We noted just now that *The dog bites*, *We write*, and *Tom sees* are already complete sentences, which however can be made more complete by adding a direct object. The fourth sentence in Group 2 above (*I like*

those) is rather different, for *I like* is incomplete and makes no sense until we put the word *those*, or some other direct object. If somebody said to us '*I like*,' and then stopped, we should not know what he meant. Can you tell me which of the following sentences are already complete, and which of them make no sense unless we add a direct object?

1. We will begin. 2. A builder is a man who builds. 3. Tom takes. 4. He paints. 5. Will you please make? 6. An inventor is a man who invents. 7. I keep. 8. The man touched. 9. People sometimes dream. 10. I know.

§485. Can you now see the difference between a *subject-complement* and a *direct object*? In which of the following sentences are the words in *italics* subject-complements, and in which are they direct objects?

1. This is *a piece of hot iron*. 2. Jack touched *a piece of hot iron*. 3. Jim became *a sailor*. 4. That man is *a sailor*. 5. I can see *a sailor*. 6. That seems to be *a difficult book*. 7. I am reading *a difficult book*. 8. The king rewarded *the brave man*. 9. Be *a brave man*. 10. Don't forget *that*.

§486. In your language do you make any difference between a noun that is a *subject-complement* and a noun that is a *direct object*?

§487. In English a personal pronoun that is a *direct object* is generally different from a personal pronoun that is a *subject-complement*. Let us compare the pronouns printed in *italics* in the following pairs of sentences:

SUBJECT-COMPLEMENT

It is *I*.

It must be *he*.

It was *they*.

That must have been *we*.

It was *you*.

DIRECT OBJECT

He sees *me*.

I know *him*.

We met *them*.

They must have met *us*.

I heard *you*.

You will see here that personal pronouns that are *subject-complements* have the same form as when they are *subjects*.

It is quite true, however, that many English people use the direct object form instead of the subject-complement form of pronouns, especially when they are talking carelessly to people they know very well. Instead of saying 'It is I' or 'It was *he*,' they say 'It is *me*' or 'It was *him*.'

§488. Let us go back to the sentences of Group 1 again. We notice that the subject-complement may be an adjective, an adjective-substitute, a noun or a noun-substitute, but let us remember that although we use nouns and noun-substitutes both as complements and as direct objects, an adjective or an adjective-substitute can never be a direct object.

GROUP 3. THE PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT

§489. Now let us turn to Group 3 and look particularly at the complements (*at it, with his friend, to him, for you*). Here we see at once that each of these begins with a *preposition* (*at, with, to, for*); it is this that marks off Group 3 from the others. After the prepositions come nouns, pronouns or noun-substitutes, and these are called here **prepositional objects**. Let us find some more sentences ending in prepositional objects :

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite</i>	<i>Preposition</i>	<i>Prepositional objects</i>
He	called	on	me.
I	called	for	my friend.
That	depends	on	the weather.
She	paid	for	the horse.
Children	play	with	toys.
They	pointed	to	the castle.
The king	fought	against	his enemies.
I	went	without	him.
He	works	for	somebody.

§490. Can you make some more sentences like these? You will notice that the personal pronouns used as prepositional objects have the form *me, him, her, us, them* (and not *I, he, she, we, they*).

GROUP 4. THE ADVERB-COMPLEMENT

§491. Now let us look at Group 4. The words at the end of the sentences are not subject-complements, not direct objects, and not prepositional objects. What are they? They are adverbs answering the question 'Where?' 'Where do you live?' somebody asks. 'I live *there*,' you may answer. 'Where did John come?' asks somebody else. We may answer, 'He came *here*.'

§492. So in Group 4 the complement consists of *adverbs of place*, and so we call it the **adverb-complement**. The chief adverbs of place are *here, there, somewhere, anywhere, nowhere, abroad, upstairs, downstairs*, as well as *in, out, away, back* and many of the other adverbial particles. If you don't quite remember these, you had better turn back to Chapter 8, which tells you all about adverbs of place and adverbial particles.

§493. But if somebody asks us where something or somebody is or goes or lives or stays, we can answer not only with adverbs of place or with adverbial particles; we can also build up such answers by putting together *prepositions of place* and *prepositional objects of place*; we can say:

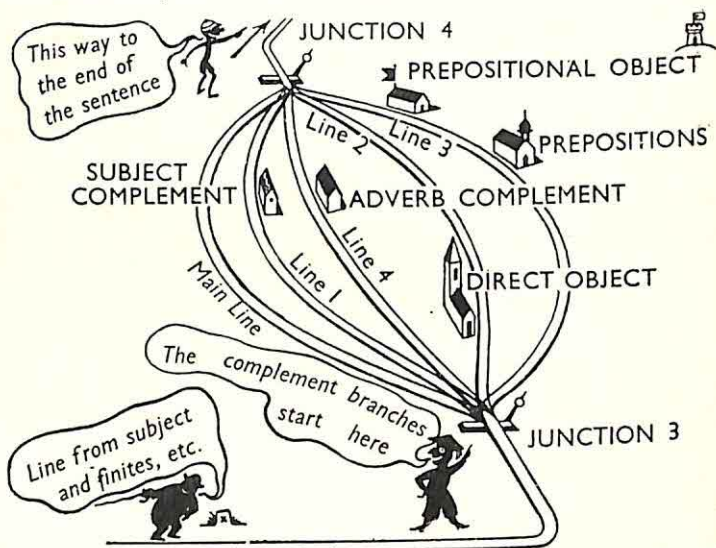
Subject	Predicate		
	Finite	Answers to the question 'Where?'	
		Preposition	Prepositional object
He	goes	to	the station.
They	live	in	London.
We	come	from	the country.
I	waited	at	the post-office.
We	went	across	the bridge.

Can you make some more sentences like these?

§494. So Groups 3 and 4 are rather alike in this way, that they can both be used to answer the question 'Where?'

§495. In Chapter 10 we learnt about the three places where sentences usually begin, and on the picture-map

(§472) we saw these and the three railway lines that lead towards the end of the sentence. But we did not show these lines any further than 'Junction 2,' the place where the three lines come together and form one line. In the picture-map below we can see the four lines that we have just described, and the stations on them.



§496. Here we see a line coming from the subject and the finites. It has just passed Junction 2 and is now going on to Junction 3. At Junction 3 five lines branch off. The line on the left has no stations on it; it is the main line and goes straight towards the end of the sentence. Sentences that go by this line are sentences like :

I know ;
 You understand ;
 They work.

They are sentences without complements.

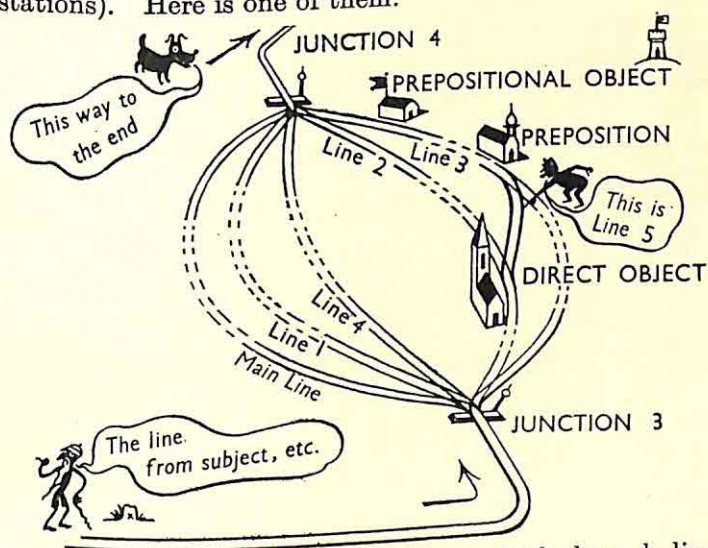
§497. Line 1 is a branch that goes through the Subject-complement station ; we read all about this in §§476, 477.

Line 2 goes through the Direct Object station ; we read about this in §§478-485. Line 3 passes through two stations : the Preposition station and the Prepositional Object station. We read about this in §§489, 490. Line 4 runs between Line 1 and Line 2 (we shall see later why it goes that way) ; it passes through the Adverb-complement station. We read about this in §§491-494.

§498. At the place marked Junction 4 the five lines all come together again and will go on to the end of the sentence.

DIRECT AND PREPOSITIONAL OBJECTS TOGETHER

§499. But these are not the only journeys the train can make after it passes Junction 3, for between these four lines that we see there are other little branch lines (with stations). Here is one of them.



§500. Can you see Line 5 ? It is a little branch line that runs from the Direct Object station to the Preposition station. By means of this line we can combine direct

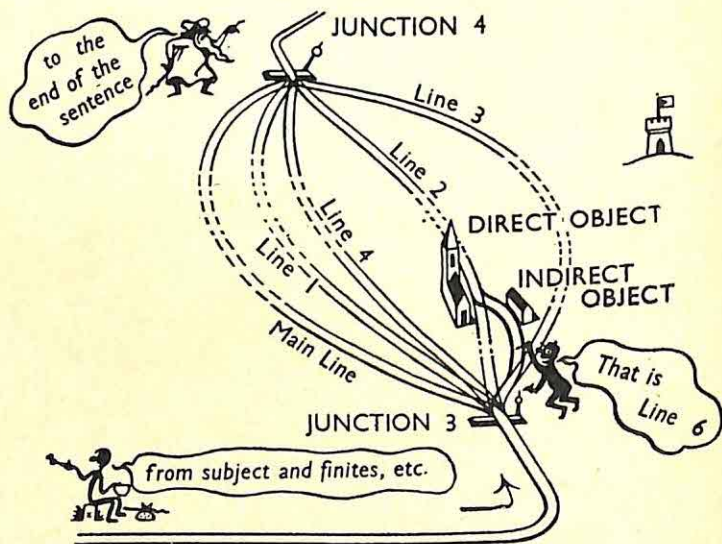
objects with prepositional objects and make journeys (or sentences) like these :

Subject	Predicate			
	Finite	Direct Object	Preposition	Prepositional Object
I	gave	it	to	my friend.
She	buys	presents	for	them.
He	took	it	from	me.
I	put	the book	on	the table.
He	writes	his letters	with	a pencil.
I	did	it	without	any trouble.
	Send	them	to	London.

§501. Rule a piece of paper in this way, please, and write ten sentences like these, taking care to put each word in its right place.

INDIRECT OBJECT

§502. Now let us look at another little branch line which has a station of its own on it. We will call this Line 6, and the name of the station is Indirect Object station.



§503. This is the sort of journey (or sentence) that we get by using this little line :

Subject	Predicate		
	Finite	Indirect Object	Direct Object
I	gave	him	something.
You	sent	me	a letter.
They	brought	you	the parcels.
She	buys	them	presents.
I	give	the man	money.

§504. You see at once, I think, what the *indirect object* is ; the examples are enough to explain it. By putting nouns and noun-substitutes (especially personal pronouns) in this column and then putting a direct object in the following column, we form sentences which mean just the same thing as some of those we saw in §500. Let us compare them :

Subject — Finite — Lines 2 and 5	Subject — Finite — Line 6
I gave one to my friend.	I gave him one.
They sent a letter to me.	They sent me a letter.
She buys presents for them.	She buys them presents.
I give money to the man.	I give the man money.

§505. You may ask which is the better way of saying things of this sort. Is it better to say *I gave one to my friend*, or *I gave my friend one* ? The best answer to the question, I think, is this :

§506. If the thing given, sent, bought, etc., is expressed by the words *it* or *them*, use the form :

I gave { it
them } to { him
the man }

I bought { it
them } for { him
the man }

§507. But if the thing given is expressed by any other word than *it* or *them*, use the other form :

I gave { him } { a letter }
 { the man } { one }

I bought { him } { a present }
 { the man } { something }

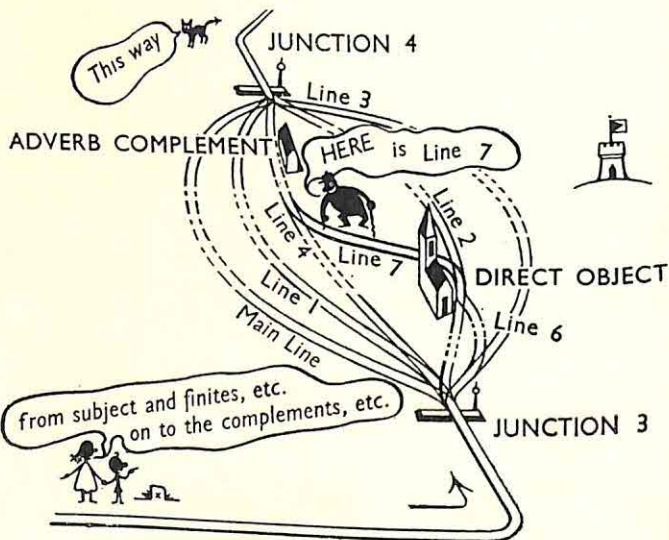
It does not much matter, however, which way you say such things, but don't use forms like *I bought the man it*, or *He sent my friend them*, because *it* and *them* don't sound right after nouns.

§508. Now, please, write out ten or twenty sentences using Branch Line 6 and passing through the Indirect Object station. The following are good verbs to use :

Give, send, bring, lend, owe, offer, pass, pay, sell, show, tell, teach, promise, write, buy, get, make.

DIRECT OBJECT AND ADVERB-COMPLEMENT

§509. Now here is another branch line (Line 7) joining the direct object and the adverb-complement.



This is the sort of sentence that this journey gives us :

Subject	Predicate		
	Finite	Direct Object	Adverb-Complement
I	put	them	here.
He	left	his books	somewhere.
We	took	our friends	there.
The man	pulled	my tooth	out.
	Throw	them	away.
I	brought	them	back.

☞ Can you make some more sentences like these ?

§510. Now let us play the substitution game. Here is a sentence :



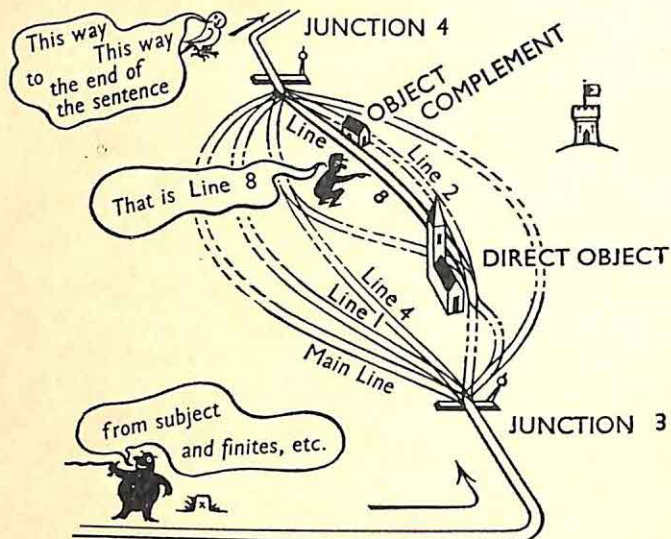
The man drove the dog out.

We will take away the finite *drove* and put another finite in its place, for instance, the finite *pulled*, and read the new sentence. Now take away the finite *pulled* and put another finite in its place, and then another and another and another. ☞ Try to think of all the ways the man made the dog go out. Some of the following verbs may help you :

pushed, called, drank, kicked, loved, came, knocked, carried, went, dropped, gave, broke, got, forced, cut, blew, helped, took, burnt, brought, rolled, threw, poured, sent, put, rubbed.

OBJECT-COMPLEMENT

§511. Here is another little branch line coming from the Direct Object station, and it has a station of its own on it. This is Line 8, and the name of the station is **Object-Complement.**



§512. By travelling along this branch line we make sentences like these :

Subject	Predicate		
	Finite	Direct Object	Object-Complement (Adjective)
He	Painted	the door	green.
We	rolled	the grass	smooth.
The man	cut	my hair	too short.
I	got	the things	ready.
The colder weather	turns	the leaves	yellow and brown.
Make		this	wider.

or like these :

Subject	Predicate		
	Finite	Direct Object	Object-Complement (Noun)
The man	called	his dog	Toby.
The people	crowned	Richard	king.
They	made	him	president.
He	named	his son	John.

or like these :


Subject	Predicate		
	Finite	Direct Object	Object-Complement (Past Participle)
I	have (or get)	my shoes	cleaned.
He	had (or got)	his clothes	mended.
The man	had (or got)	the book	printed.
We	had (or got)	the tree	cut down.

§513. This sort of complement is called the *object-complement* because it *completes* something that we say about the *direct object*. The object-complement tells us what happens to the direct object after we have done something to it. When we say that somebody paints the door *green*, or rolls the grass *smooth*, or cuts our hair *too short*, we mean that the door is *green*, that the grass is *smooth* and that our hair is *too short* because somebody has done something to the door, the grass or our hair.


§514. Like the subject-complements, these object-complements may be adjectives or nouns (see §476).

§515. Here are 1,296 sentences built up on the pattern

Subject—Finite—Direct Object—Object-Complement.

 Write out twenty of them that make sense :

I	}	{	call	}	{	the garden	}	king
The man			washed			the wood		smooth
Mary			made			the house		clean
The dog			rubbed			the room		short
The people			cut			my dog		dirty
The machine			crowned			the grass		Jack

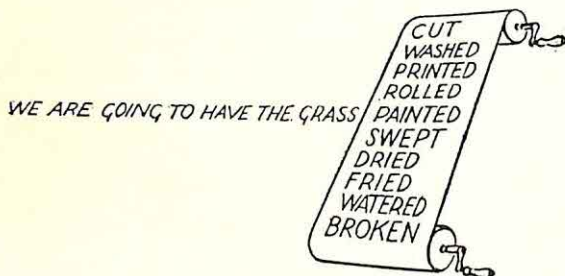
§516.  Which sentence would be right for the following picture ?



§517. Here are 1,176 sentences (many of them ungrammatical) in which the object-complement is a past participle. ✎ Write out ten of them that make good grammar and good sense :

I	}	have	}	the clock	}	lighted
The man		has		the room		washed
Mary		had		the fire		taken
Tom		get		her dress		repaired
		gets		the windows		painted
		got		his photograph		swept
				the doors		cleaned

§518. Here is a substitution exercise. ✎ Which of the past participles on the moving band fit the sentence ?



THERE AND SHIFTED SUBJECT

§519. Look at these sentences, please :

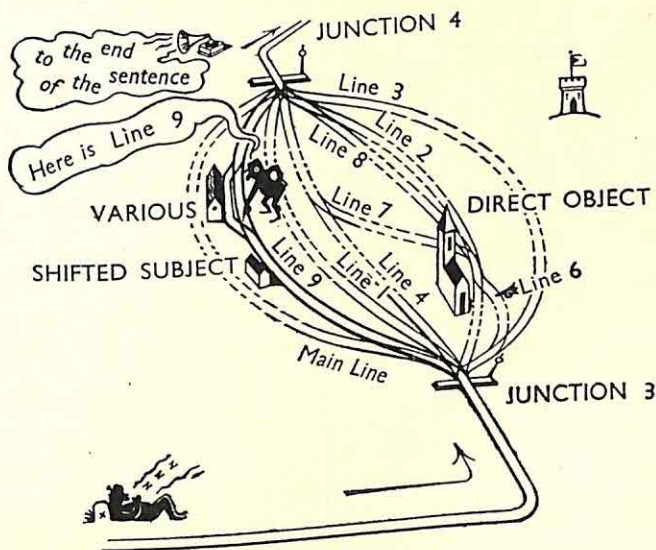
1	2	3	4
There	is	something	on the table.
There	was	nothing	in the house.
There	are	some trees	along the road.
There	were	several people	in front of the post-office.
There	is	nobody	here.
There	was	something	the matter with him.

They are sentences, as you see, beginning with *there is*, *there are*, *there was*, or *there were*. How shall we arrange these sentences ? The word *there* that begins the sentence is not the subject of the sentence, but it looks like one and stands in the place where we expect to find the subject.

The words in column 3 (*something, nothing, some trees, etc.*) look like complements and stand in the place where we expect to find complements, but they are *not* complements but *subjects* of the sentences !

§520. Now what we shall do is this : since ^{the} this word *there* (of column 1) is always found in the place in the sentence where we find *subjects*, we shall put it among the subjects—even if it is *not* one ; since the words in column 3 above are always found in the place in the sentence where we find complements, we shall put them among the complements—although they are *not* complements. We shall call them **shifted subjects** and put them on a special line of their own—Line 9.

§521. In column 4 we find all sorts of words and combinations of words, so many indeed that there is no particular name for them. We shall simply call them ‘various,’ a word meaning ‘all sorts of things.’



§522. In the following table the shifted subject is followed by adverb-complements.

There	is	something	here
	are	a book	there
	was	three boxes	outside
		some people	inside
	were	nothing	somewhere

Make five sentences from this table. (But take care not to put a singular subject after *are* and *were*, and not to put a plural subject after *is* and *was*.)

§523. In the following table the shifted subject is followed by prepositions and prepositional objects.

There	is	something	in	the bridge
	are	nothing	on	the road
	was	some trees	over	the table
		a bridge	along	the room
	were	several people	under	this

Make five sentences from this table.

§524. In the following table the shifted subject is followed by adjectives and adjective-substitutes.

There	is	something	ill
	are	somebody	missing
	was	a child	wrong
		a page	the matter with it
	were	some men	the matter with him
			crying
			coming


Make five sentences from this table.

§525. In the following table the shifted subject is followed by *to* and an infinitive. We may put *for me*, *for you*, etc., before the word *to*.

There	is	something	(for me) to do
	are	nothing	(for you) to write
	was	two letters	(for him) to eat
		some work	(for us) to drink
	were		


Make five sentences from this table.

§526. In all the above tables we may add *not* after *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*.

 Make five sentences from these tables, adding *not*. But be careful to change *some* into *any*.


§527. In all the above tables we can say :

Is	} there	instead of	There	{	is
Are					are
Was					was
Were					were

 Make five questions from these tables. but be careful to change *some* into *any*.


§528. Those are all the important and useful journeys that we (or the train) can make after passing Junction 3. Here is a table showing the subject, the finite, and different stations that come after. In this table you see nine sentences of different sorts all properly arranged and set out, with their words in the right columns.

Subject	Finite	In-direct Object	Direct Object	Subject and Object-Complement	Preposition	Prepositional Object	Adverb-Complement
1. I	want		that	free			
2. He	is				to	me	there
3. They	spoke						
4. It	is				to	him	
5. I	sent		a letter				
6. We	gave	him	some				here
7. You	put		your books				
8. They	cut		the grass	short			
9. I	have		my shoes	cleaned			

§529.  Now rule a sheet of paper in the same way and write in the same way the following sentences. Be careful to put each word in the right column.

1. We asked for one.
2. He made his hands dirty.

3. Nobody is sorry.
4. This comes from London.
5. This is my hat.
6. I took the bag from him.
7. He likes horses.
8. We looked at it.
9. They bought some new clothes for him.
10. I feel happy.
11. The postman brings us letters.
12. Your stick is here.
13. Nobody does that.
14. They went away.
15. He keeps his money here.
16. Give me those.
17. We took several.
18. I got my coat mended.
19. Push that chair away.
20. I took my hat off.

§530.  Write out the twenty sentences above, making one change in each sentence. For instance, in the first sentence, instead of writing *We asked for one*, write *We asked for two*, or *We waited for one*, or *I asked for one*.

§531. Before we finish this chapter, would you like to see the 'railway-map' that shows all the lines on which we have formed our sentence patterns? It looks rather complicated by now, but here it is. See what a lot you have learnt about sentence-making!

CHAPTER 12

THE FOUR BIG LOOPS

1. THE INFINITIVE LOOP

§532. So far we have looked at only those 'sentence patterns' that contain one verb—the finite form. We have used sentences containing just one finite such as *give*, *comes* or *took*. It is now time for you to learn about what are called **compound-verb forms**, such as :

I *can take* it (with the **infinitive take**).

I *stop taking* it (with the **gerund taking**).

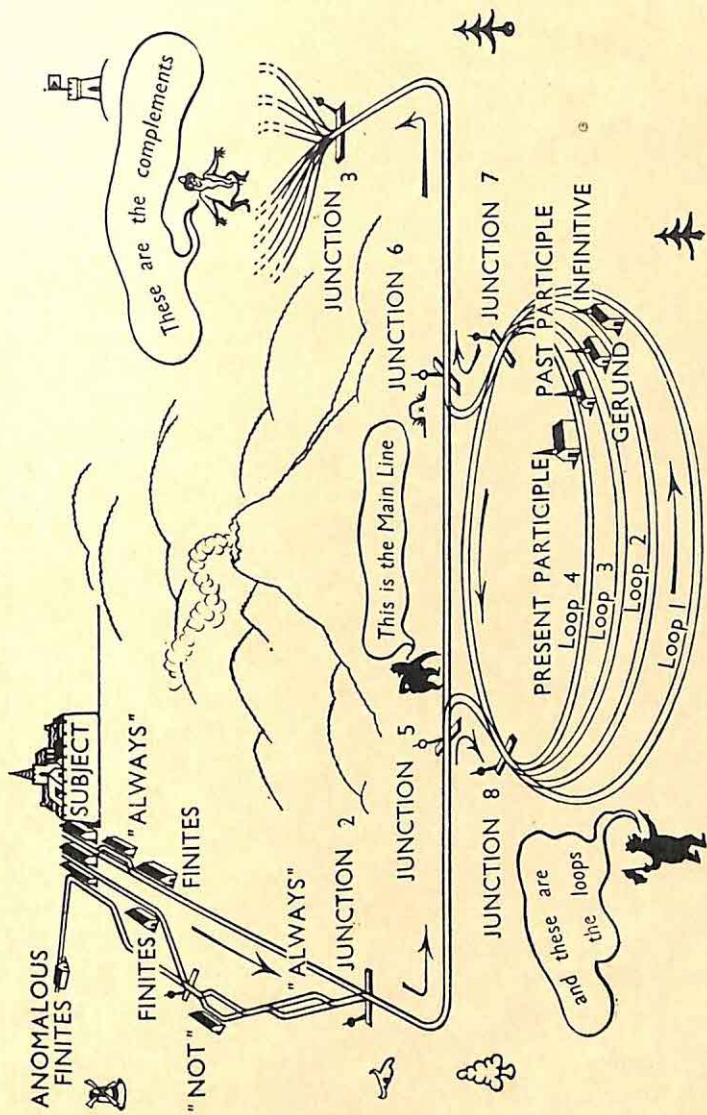
I *have taken* it (with the **past participle taken**).

I *am taking* it (with the **present participle taking**).

§533. We are now going to draw on our map four loop-lines. On the first we shall put a station marked **Infinitive** ; on the second a station marked **Gerund** ; on the third a station marked **Past Participle**, and on the fourth a station marked **Present Participle**.

§534. At a place called Junction 5 we leave the 'main line' (on which we have been travelling up to now), and shortly after this the four loop-lines separate. They come together and meet the main line again at a place called Junction 6, and the journey goes on towards the complements and the end of the sentence.

§535. Now although thousands and thousands of sentences contain one verb-form (a finite) and one only, there are thousands more that contain two (or even more)



verb-forms ; and in all these cases the sentence travels round one or other of these four loop-lines.

INFINITIVE

(See §243 to §260)

§536. Let us see the Infinitive Line first, and examine the following sentences :

SUBJECT AND FINITE WITH OR WITHOUT NOT	ADJEC- TIVES, NOUNS, ETC.	to	INFINI- TIVE	COMPLE- MENTS, ETC.
I want		to	see	it
You can			go	
This door is	difficult	to	open	
He means		to	try	
You will			under- stand	that
Do not (<i>or</i> Don't)			move	
We hope		to	come	here
It was	time	to	get	ready
We can			wait	
I forgot		to	tell	you
Will you			do	that ?
Was he	able	to	speak	English ?
He has		to	go	there now
There is	no need	to	be	afraid
You had	better		buy	one
He does not (<i>or</i> doesn't)			know	
Is he	certain	to		come ?
You ought		to	speak	to him
I do not (<i>or</i> don't)			think	so
We must not (<i>or</i> mustn't)			break	it
The wood began		to	burn	
Can it			be	done ?
I did not (<i>or</i> didn't)			bring	any
That seems		to	be	right
You are not		to	take	any

§537. When we examine these sentences, we notice at least seven things :

1. That (except for *be*) the infinitive-word is just the same as the present finite-word. See §§217 and 245.
2. That sometimes we find and sometimes do not find the word *to* before the infinitive-word. See §§250 and 256.
3. That in each sentence there is a finite (sometimes coming after and sometimes coming before the subject). See §§451, 452.
4. That some of these are anomalous finites and that others are not.
5. That before the word *not* you will always find an anomalous finite. See §§226-229 and §§467-469.
6. That the word *not* may be written *n't* and joined to the anomalous finite that comes before it. See §467.
7. That adjectives, nouns and other words are sometimes seen between the finite and the infinitive.

§538. These examples show the use of that member of a verb called the infinitive. In fact if somebody asked you the question 'What is an infinitive?' your best answer would be, 'It is a form of the verb that is used as in such examples.'

NEGATIVE SENTENCES

§539. Do you know what a negative sentence is? It is one in which the word *not* comes after a finite. We could say that a negative sentence is one in which we say that something or somebody is not something (*A horse is not a fish, John is not ready*), or that somebody or something does *not*, did *not*, will *not* or cannot, etc., do something.

§540. Among the twenty-five sentences in §536 how many are negative?

§541. The contrary of negative is affirmative, so if negative sentences are *no*-sentences, affirmative sentences are *yes*-sentences.

THESE ARE AFFIRMATIVE OR
'YES'-SENTENCES

He is here.

I shall see him.

You must do that.

We were in a hurry.

THESE ARE NEGATIVE OR
'NO'-SENTENCES

He is not here.

I shall not see him.

You must not do that.

We were not in a hurry.

§542. As we have said in §229, *not*¹ can be used only with the twenty-four anomalous finites.

§543. Here are some more affirmative sentences :

1. I see him.
2. You like that.
3. We go away.
4. He comes every day.
5. She likes these.
6. I saw him.
7. We went away.
8. He came every day.
9. They spoke English.
10. They gave me one.

§544. There is no anomalous finite in any of these sentences, you will notice. So how do we turn them into negative sentences ? As you know, we cannot say *I see not him*, or *You liken't that*, or *We gon't away*. This is how we make them negative :

AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCES

1. I see him.

2. You like that.

3. We go away.

4. He comes every day.

5. She likes these.

NEGATIVE SENTENCES

1. I do not (*or don't*) see him.

2. You do not (*or don't*) like that.

3. We do not (*or don't*) go away.

4. He does not (*or doesn't*) come every day.

5. She does not (*or doesn't*) like these.

¹ But, as we shall see later, there is another sort of *not*. This other sort of *not* is used not to make *sentences* negative, but to make *words* or *parts of the sentence* negative. This other sort of *not* can be used in almost any part of the sentence. We shall read about this other sort of *not* in §572.

AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCES

6. I saw him.
7. We went away.
8. He came every day.
9. They spoke English.
10. They gave me one.

NEGATIVE SENTENCES

6. I did not (or didn't) see him.
7. We did not (or didn't) go away.
8. He did not (or didn't) come every day.
9. They did not (or didn't) speak English.
10. They did not (or didn't) give me one.

§545. You see, what we really do is this : We take a sentence such as *I see him* ; we can't put *not* after *see*, so we change the *see* into *do see* (*do* is an anomalous finite), and then we put the word *not* (or *n't*) after it. Like this :

I see him

I do see him

I do not see him

He comes here

He does come here

He does not come here

I saw him

I did see him

I did not see him

§546. But of course in sentences like *I shall see*, *He must come*, *I have one*, we simply put the *not* after *shall*, *must* or *have* because these are among the twenty-four anomalous finites.

§547. Now let us turn some affirmative sentences into negative ones. You will see that what these sentences

tell us sounds very funny or wrong until we make them negative :

1. My house is made of sugar. 2. Birds wear clothes. 3. Trees walk and run. 4. Please work carelessly. 5. I can do everything. 6. I like nasty things. 7. We must hurt people. 8. The sun rises in the West. 9. The earth is square. 10. John wanted the bad one. 11. Hit me. 12. I saw very well in the dark. 13. We sleep during the day and work during the night. 14. A dog walks on two legs and wears shoes.

§548. What I have said about *not* and negative sentences shows you how very useful the infinitive is, and why our sentences have to travel round the infinitive loop-line, for without travelling round this line (or one of the other loop-lines) we should often not be able to make negative sentences.

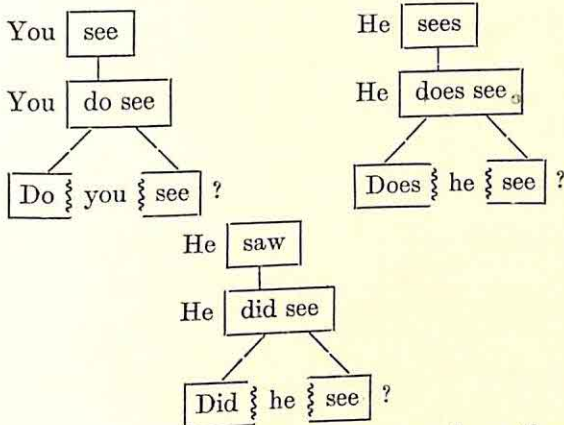
INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

§549. Here is another use of the infinitive loop-line. You know what interrogative sentences are, don't you? They are sentences with which we ask questions. You remember, too, that most interrogative sentences are formed by making an anomalous finite jump over the subject :



§550. But suppose there is no anomalous finite to jump over the subject? (And only anomalous finites can jump over the subject, you remember!) What must we do? Well, we must put an anomalous finite into the

sentence, and then make it jump over the subject. Like this :



§551. So once again we have to use those three important anomalous finites *do*, *does*, *did*, and we have to put infinitives after them. But, of course, if there is already an anomalous finite in our affirmative sentence, we do not need—and we must not use—*do*, *does* and *did*.

§552. Sentences that are not interrogative are called **positive sentences**. Let us now turn

THESE POSITIVE SENTENCES

He spoke to you.
You are ready.
They came back.
You will open the door.
He knows you.
Birds can fly.
Everybody understands.
He does his work well.
He did his duty.
You do this every day.

INTO INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

Did he speak to you ?
Are you ready ?
Did they come back ?
Will you open the door ?
Does he know you ?
Can birds fly ?
Does everybody understand ?
Does he do his work well ?
Did he do his duty ?
Do you do this every day ?

§553. The last three examples show you that *do*, *does*,

and *did* are sometimes just anomalous finites (useful for making negative and interrogative sentences, but without any meaning of their own), and sometimes ordinary finites with a meaning of their own, so that sometimes in one sentence we find the verb *to do* being used twice over.

How do you do ?


we often say. Here we find *do* twice over.

Do they do that here ?

Here again is *do* twice in the same sentence.

We do not often do that.

Again here is *do* used twice—this time in a negative sentence.

§554.  Now let us turn the following positive sentences into interrogative sentences.

1. Ali Baba went to the cave.
2. Prospero called Miranda.
3. Grass is green.
4. Birds fly.
5. You are tired.
6. A fish swims.
7. Columbus sailed to America.
8. There is a lot of water in the river.
9. Cats can climb trees.
10. The King likes new clothes.
11. The King was fond of new clothes.
12. We ought to be kind to poor people.

EMPHATIC AFFIRMATIVE

§555. We are now going to look at some sentences that are called **emphatic** sentences (or, as we sometimes say, sentences with an **emphatic affirmative** in them).

He said he was not tired, but he *was* tired.

You think he is not rich, but he *is* rich.

He thinks I am not here, but I *am* here.

He says that cats can't climb trees, but they *can* climb trees.

I don't want to go, but I *must* go.

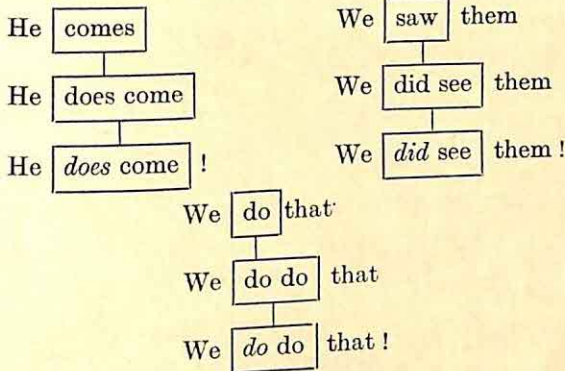
You don't want to do it, but you *will* do it.

I did not say that I *would* come ; I only said that I *might* come.

Now in these sentences you see words in italics. When you say these sentences, you *emphasize* these words ; you

say them with some force, perhaps rather loudly or slowly. You will notice that these emphasized finites are always anomalous finites. When we emphasize anomalous finites it is generally as if we were saying *yes*, **YES**, **YES**, **YES** !

§556. But suppose that the sentence that we want to emphasize has no anomalous finite in it. What do we do then ? Why, we do as we did before : we cut up the finite into *do*, *does* or *did* and an infinitive. Like this :



§557.

THESE SENTENCES ARE NOT
EMPHATIC :

He likes apples.
I am pleased.
He has some money.
We came back.
They speak English.
You are lucky.
Sit down.


THESE SENTENCES ARE
EMPHATIC :

He *does* like apples !
I *am* pleased !
He *has* some money !
We *did* come back !
They *do* speak English !
You *are* lucky !
Do sit down !

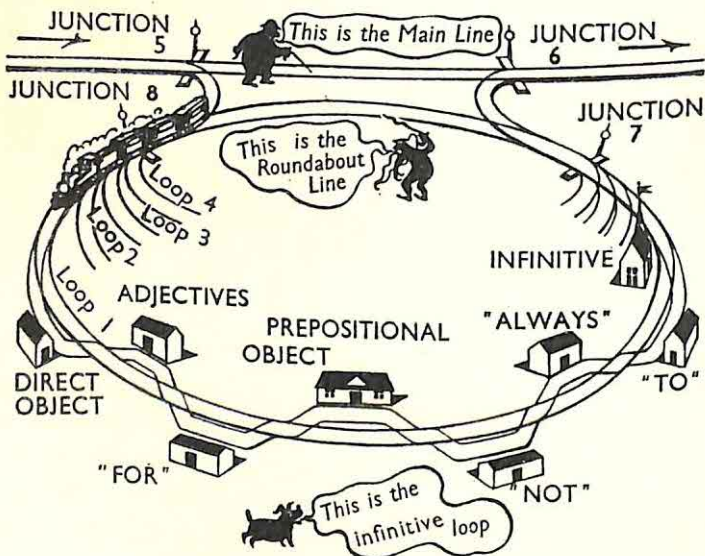
§558. So when you find in your reading-book such forms as *did see* (instead of *saw*), *does come* (instead of *comes*), *do speak* (instead of *speak*), you will know that they are used to make the sentence emphatic.

§559. Now here are some sentences that are not emphatic.

1. I am happy. 2. He is funny. 3. I can do it. 4. I like it. 5. He will be pleased. 6. I have enjoyed it. 7. They came. 8. He goes. 9. I must remember that. 10. We were there. 11. Sit down. 12. He did his work well. 13. They might go. 14. You write well. 15. He makes a lot of mistakes.

 Make them emphatic, please. You do this by underlining the anomalous finite, or, if you are saying the sentences, by pronouncing the anomalous finite very clearly and slowly. But if there is no anomalous finite in the sentence you must put *do*, *does* or *did* into the sentence, as we did in §556.

§560. We had now better look at this loop-line again and pay a little attention to the other smaller stations on it. There are some sentences that stop at all these stations, some sentences pass through them or some of them without stopping; in fact, some of these stations, as you see, are provided with special lines for the through trains that do not stop.



§561. We have already noticed that some sentences must have the word *to* before the infinitive and that other sentences must not. If you take your reading-books and mark all the sentences that run along the infinitive loop, you will find that *to* is **not** used in the following cases :

(1) After the anomalous finites : *do, does, did, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must*, and sometimes *need* and *dare* :

I	{	do	{	(not)	go
You		does			come
We		did			see it
They		shall			take them
He		should			speak to him
She		will			wait for him
Nobody		would			look at them
etc.		can			break it
		could			etc.
		may			
	might				
	must				
	need				
	dare				

(2) After *make, let, see, hear*, and a few other verbs :

I	{	{	make	{	it	{	go there
You			let		him		come
We			see		them		do it
They			hear		the man		play
etc.					etc.		etc.

(3) After *had better* and *would rather* :

I	{	{	(not)	go	
You				had better	come
We				would rather	take them
They					stay here
etc.					etc.

§562. Those are the cases in which we use the infinitive without putting *to* in front of it (or, as we may say, those are the cases in which our train does not stop at the station marked *to*).

§563. — Make from ten to twenty sentences from the above three tables, and you will see that *to* is not used and must not be used.

§564. I could now tell you when we must put *to* in front of the infinitive, but it is shorter if I say that in *all* other cases we put *to* in front of the infinitive. You will see plenty of examples in §536.

THE STATION MARKED 'DIRECT OBJECT'

§565. Sometimes trains that are going to the infinitive stop at the Direct Object Station, as we saw in §561 (2), like this :

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Finite</i>	<i>Direct Object</i>	<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Complement</i>
I	make	<i>him</i>	go	there.
They	let	<i>them</i>	come	
We	see	<i>her</i>	do	it.

But we can make thousands and thousands of *other* sentences with this direct object if we put **to** into such sentences. See what a large number can be formed from this table by means of substitution :

I etc.	ask	him to etc.	{	do it
	tell			come here
	invite			take them
	oblige			wait
	force			see that
	get			etc.
	allow			
	beg			
	help			
	want			
	wish			
	like			
	prefer			
	mean			
	expect			
	etc.			

ADJECTIVES FOLLOWED BY THE INFINITIVE

§566. After the place marked *direct object* you will see a station marked *adjectives, etc.* By stopping at this station we can make sentences like these :

SUBJECT AND FINITE	ADJECTIVE, TO ETC.	INFINITIVE AND REST OF THE SENTENCE
It is Is it It is not etc.	<div> <div> difficult easy possible impossible important useful useless better right wrong necessary foolish good bad etc. time </div> </div>	<div> <div> do the work come here make mistakes run away play learn English go there etc. </div> </div>


§567. Please make some. You see that nearly all the words in column 2 are adjectives, but sometimes we find a noun there ; *time* is a noun.

'FOR' AND THE PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT

§568. Now what about the two stations marked *for* and *prepositional object* ? By stopping at these stations we get such sentences as :

It is Is it It is not etc.	<div> <div> difficult easy possible impossible etc. time </div> </div>	for	<div> <div> me you him somebody the man John etc. </div> </div>	to	<div> <div> do the work come here make mistakes run away play etc. </div> </div>
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§569. The 'etc.' that you see in these tables means 'You may add here any other suitable word or words like these.' So if you wanted to do so you could build up (by 'substitution') thousands and thousands of sentences and you would know that every one was perfectly correct.

§570.  Make a few sentences of this sort, please.

THE STATION MARKED 'NOT'

§571. We have often spoken about the word *not*, how it comes after anomalous finites and may be joined to them, and how it may be spelt and pronounced *n't*. This is the *not* that makes sentences negative.


§572. But there is another sort of *not*; this one makes negative infinitives.¹ This second *not* is never written or pronounced *n't*, and its place in the sentence is where you see it in the map in §560. In the following sentences you see the two sorts of *not*.

NOT THAT MAKES SENTENCES NEGATIVE

It is not (or isn't) better to go.
Do not (or Don't) tell him to come.
He did not (or didn't) ask me to wait.

NOT THAT MAKES INFINI- TIVES NEGATIVE

It is better not to go.
Tell him not to come.
He asked me not to wait.

§573.  Make some more sentences like the three on the right-hand side above.

THE STATION MARKED 'ALWAYS,' ETC.

§574. Why how is this? In other chapters we have seen *always*, *often*, *still*, *never*, etc., marked as coming quite early in the sentence, and in two different places (see §§238, 374, 455), and here we have them for the third time! Well, you see, adverbs like this may come in all

¹ This *not* makes not only negative infinitives but other negative forms.

sorts of places according to the meaning. When these words belong to the infinitive they are put just where you see them here. For there is a difference of meaning between *I never tell him to come* and *I tell him never to come*, or *It is always impossible to do it* and *It is impossible always to do it*.

§575. Now make a few sentences from this table :

It is better	{	{ always never simply just etc. }	{ to be afraid to do it like this to tell the truth to come early to make mistakes to wait to be patient to do a thing well etc. }
It is a good thing			
It seems difficult			
It is right			
You are wrong			
I told him			
He advised me etc.			

THE ROUNDABOUT LINE


§576. But what is that funny line called the Roundabout Line? Oh! that's for trains that want to go to the Infinitive station twice or more. Here is a sentence with two infinitives in it :

I don't want to see it.

This sentence comes down from the finites, stops at the Infinitive station to pick up the word *want*, then at Junction 7 joins the Roundabout Line, joins the Infinitive Loop at Junction 8, stops at *to*, and then picks up *see* at the Infinitive station, and finally goes off to the direct object for the *it* and the end of the line.

§577. Here is a sentence with four infinitives in it :

He does not *like to have to begin to work* so early.
To form a sentence like this we have to use the Roundabout Line three times.

§578.  Now please make some more sentences with three infinitives in them, using the following table :

I do not like to	}	{	force him to	}	{	do that
Do you like to			promise to			wait
I do not want to			have to			read
He did not wish to			begin to			write those letters now
Did you mean to			tell him to			work
			advise her to			come

§579. We have now seen the Infinitive Loop, one of the four big loops. We have seen what a great number of sentences run along it and how useful it is. It is quite possible that one English sentence in four (that is to say, a quarter of all the sentences we ever use) has an infinitive in it ! But it is now time to look at the next of the four loops : the one called the Gerund Loop.

CHAPTER 13

THE FOUR BIG LOOPS (*continued*)

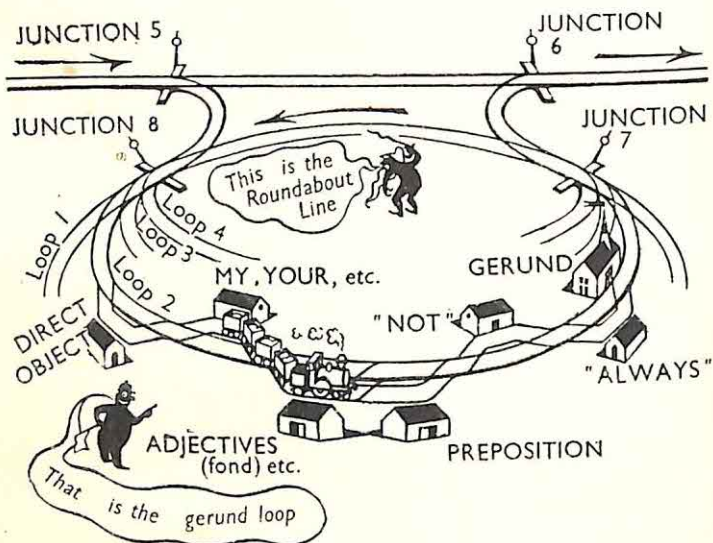
2. THE GERUND LOOP

§580. In §533 you saw a map of the four big loops (as we call them), and then we took the first of the four (the *Infinitive* Loop) and studied all the different sorts of sentences that use it. We are now going to look at the second of these loops (the one called the *Gerund* Loop) and see what sort of sentences we can make with that.

§581. The gerund, as we have noticed in Chapter 5, is one of the two members of the verb that end in *ing* (the other one is the present participle). In such sentences as the following the words printed in *italic type* are gerunds.

He suddenly stopped *coming*.
Most children prefer *playing* to *working*.
The king was fond of *wearing* new clothes.
I can't help *feeling* sorry for him.
It's no use my *talking* to him.
Don't keep *laughing*.
I'm used to *doing* that.

§582. Here is a picture-map of the Gerund Loop.



§583. Now let us see how this loop works. Here is a table from which you can make a few thousand sentences :

GERUNDS AND COMPLEMENTS		
I You We They He She It etc.	{ start(s) stop(s) finish(es) go(es) on keep(s) keep(s) on prefer(s) enjoy(s) started stopped finished went on etc.	{ speaking writing letters waiting reading working playing doing this cutting them being lazy going there etc.

The gerunds, you will see, are just like nouns used as direct object. — Make ten sentences from this table, please.

§584. You will notice here something rather curious and puzzling. It is this : We say

He begins to *speak* (*speak* is infinitive)

but


He stops *speaking* (*speaking* is gerund).

Why do we have to use the infinitive in one case and the gerund in the other ? Well, nobody knows what the real reason is, so we shall not try to find it. The important thing to remember is that :

1. Some verbs have to be followed by the infinitive.
2. Some verbs have to be followed by the gerund.
3. Some verbs may be followed either by the infinitive or the gerund.

§585. We have already seen in Chapter 12 a large number of verbs that are followed by the infinitive (or that make us go along the Infinitive Loop), so we need not repeat them here. You can make a collection of them if you like. Here is a list of verbs (simple and compound) that are followed by the gerund and not the infinitive :


enjoy	leave off ¹
put off ¹	finish
go on ¹	give up ¹
keep on ¹	(don't) mind ¹
stop	can't help ¹

There are others, but these are the chief ones.  Please make ten sentences with the above verbs followed by a gerund.

§586. Now here is a list of verbs that are followed either by the gerund or the infinitive :


start	love
begin	prefer
continue	regret
like	can't bear ¹
dislike	can't afford ¹
hate	

¹ We may call these things *compound verbs*.

We can say, *It started moving* or *It started to move* ; we can say, *We began working* or *We began to work*.  Make two sentences with each of these verbs, one with the gerund and the other with the infinitive.


§587. Here is something important to remember : the gerund (and not the infinitive) is used after prepositions. On the picture you will see a station called *preposition*. This is how the sentences go :

SUBJECT, FINITES, ETC.	PREPOSITIONS	GERUND AND COMPLEMENT
She is fond	of	dancing.
I thought	of	staying there.
I am used	to	doing that.
Begin	by	writing this.
He believes	in	getting up early.
People can't live	without	eating and drinking.
I was prevented	from	going there.

 Can you make some more sentences like these ?


§588. Here is another sort of sentence in which the gerund is very useful :

SUBJECT, FINITES, ETC.	MY, YOUR, HIS, ETC.	GERUND AND COMPLEMENT
Excuse	my	troubling you.
It is no use	your	saying that.
He doesn't like	our	taking them.

 Can you find some more sentences like these ?

§589. In such sentences as the following we find a direct object, a preposition and a gerund :

SUBJECT, FINITES, ETC.	DIRECT OBJECT	PREPOSITION	GERUND AND COMPLEMENT
That prevented	the man	from	coming.
We thanked	him	for	doing it.
I don't like	the idea	of	starting so late.
We begin	letters	by	writing the date.

 Make some more sentences like these, please.

§590. — Now please put a suitable gerund in the place of each of these dashes :

1. I don't like you — my things. 2. We are not very fond of —. 3. Stop —! 4. I began by — the door. 5. Don't let me prevent you from —. 6. Thank you for — that. 7. Excuse my — so late. 8. I can't bear —. 9. It is no good your — to run away. 10. We enjoy —. 11. Write this without — any mistakes. 12. Suddenly the machine stopped —.

§591. In many of our examples of the gerund we came from the Infinitive Loop to the Gerund Loop by way of Junctions 7 and 8 and the Roundabout Line. We can also go from the Gerund Loop to the Infinitive Loop in the same way. For instance :

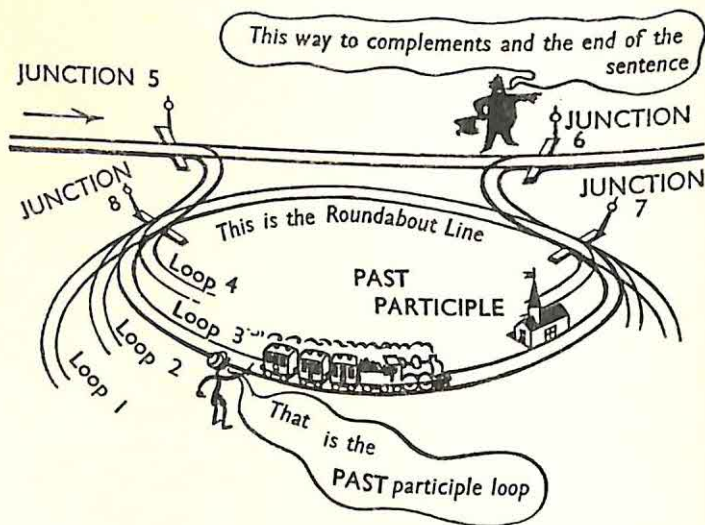
	GERUND		INFINITIVE	
It is no use	beginning	to	do	that now
I cannot understand his	wanting	to	come	here
I prefer	letting	him	wait	

CHAPTER 14

THE FOUR BIG LOOPS (*continued*)

3. THE PAST PARTICIPLE LOOP

§592. We are now going to look at the third of the four big loops :



§593. There is, as you see, only one station on this loop : the past participle itself. From the two following tables you will see how it works :

TABLE I

I	}	{ have or has }	(not)	taken it
You				seen them
We				been there
They				given it to him
He				had one
The man				wanted to go there
etc.				been doing that
				stopped coming

§594. This table shows us what are called the perfect forms. We spoke about these in §275. The past participle is here printed in **thick type**. *Have*, *has*, and *had* are anomalous finites.

§595. The perfect forms are generally arranged in the following way :

Writing way 1

PRESENT PERFECT FORM

I	{	have (not)	{	taken seen had been etc.
You				
We				
They				
etc.				
He	{	has (not)		
She				
It				
etc.				

PAST PERFECT FORM

I	{	had (not)	{	taken seen had been etc.
You				
We				
They				
He				
She	{			
It				
etc.				

PERFECT FORM FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

PAST PARTICIPLES INFINITIVES

I	{	{	have (or has)	{	(not)	{	to	{
You								
We								
They								
He								
She								
It								
etc.								
						wanted		take
						wished		see
						begun		have
						tried		be
						managed		etc.
						forgotten		


§596. The *not*, you see, may be added in its usual place after the anomalous finites *have* or *has*, to make the sentence negative.

§597. *Have, has* and *had* being anomalous finites, they may, of course, come before the subject, and so form interrogative sentences (that is to say, questions) such as these :

Have you seen it ?

Has he forgotten ?


Had you already seen it ?

§598.  You had better now make a few sentences according to these patterns to show that you know how to use them.

§599. For the sentences marked '*Perfect Form followed by Infinitives*' we shall have to use the Roundabout Line, which will take us from loop 2 to loop 1, by way of Junctions 7 and 8.

§600. Here are some more examples of the present perfect followed by the infinitive ; the past participles are printed in *italic* type :

1. I have quite *forgotten* to tell you something. 2. Have you *managed* to finish your work ? 3. I have *begun* to understand. 4. He has often *asked* me to go and see him. 5. It has not *been* necessary to clean them. 6. We have *decided* to wait a little longer. 7. Have you *forgotten* to write the letter ? 8. I have *had* to go to London. 9. Has your friend *agreed* to do the work ? 10. I have *taken* great care not to break any.

 Now please write out these sentences, but changing the present perfect form into the past form (see §206). The first sentence will be *I quite forgot to tell you something*, and the second will be *Did you manage to finish your work ?*

§601. Here is the table that shows the second important use of past participles :

TABLE II

It is (not)	}	{	done finished seen written wanted etc.
They are (not)			
This was (not)			
The man was (not)			
I am (not)			
It will (not) be			
It will (not) have been			
Is it etc.			

§602. This table shows us what is called the **Passive Voice**, that we spoke about in §275. The finites are *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*—all anomalous, and so they are very easy to use.

The passive voice is generally arranged like this :

PRESENT PASSIVE

I am (not)	}	{	seen known stopped expected waited for etc.
He is (not)			
It is (not)			
We are (not)			
You are (not)			
They are (not)			

PAST PASSIVE

I was (not)	}	{	seen known stopped expected waited for etc.
He was (not)			
It was (not)			
We were (not)			
You were (not)			
They were (not)			

§603. Here is another combination of the passive voice :

I	}	{	have (or has) had	{	(not)	been	{	seen stopped expected
You								
We								
They								
He								
etc.								

↑
This is the past
participle of the
verb *to be*.

To form such sentences as these we must use the Round-about Line and pass through the Past Participle Station twice, the first time to pick up the word *been*.

§604. The contrary of the **passive voice** is the **active voice**. If you look at these examples, you will at once see what the difference is :

ACTIVE VOICE

I take the book.
 You saw somebody.
 Nobody opened the door.
 Tom waited for Jim.
 Somebody has broken this.

PASSIVE VOICE

The book is taken (by me).
 Somebody was seen (by you).
 The door was opened by nobody.
 Jim was waited for by Tom.
 This has been broken (by
 somebody).

§605. The following sentences are in the *active* voice.
 Write them in the *passive* voice, please. (The first
 one will be *My friend was seen by somebody.*)

1. Somebody saw my friend. 2. Jim threw a stone. 3. I
 have done everything. 4. Did you write this letter?
 5. Everybody forgets that. 6. Somebody else did that.
 7. Somebody has broken this window. 8. John ate all the
 apples. 9. I did not do that. 10. Nobody has ever seen the
 other side of the moon. (*Be very careful about this sentence !*)

§606. Now please put a suitable past participle in
 the place of each of these dashes :

1. Have you — my book anywhere? 2. I have often —
 to go there. 3. A table is — of wood. 4. I have not —
 there for a long time. 5. Do you remember it or have you
 quite — it? 6. Have you — my book to him? 7. The letter
 has not yet been —. 8. Why has he — that? 9. I have —
 my finger. 10. If I had — two, I should have — one of them
 to you. 11. My friend had already —. 12. If we hide
 behind the tree, we shall not be —.


§607. Here we see the infinitive *have* followed by past
 participles :

I shall (not)	} have {	done that
We may (not)		spoken to him
You ought (not) to		come back
They must		used that
You need not		

Make a few sentences from this table, please.

§608. Here we see past participles followed by the infinitive.

	PAST PARTICIPLE		INFINITIVE	
I have often	wanted	to	see	that
I have not	been	able to	finish	the work
It has	been	unnecessary to	make	any change
They have	decided	to	go	away

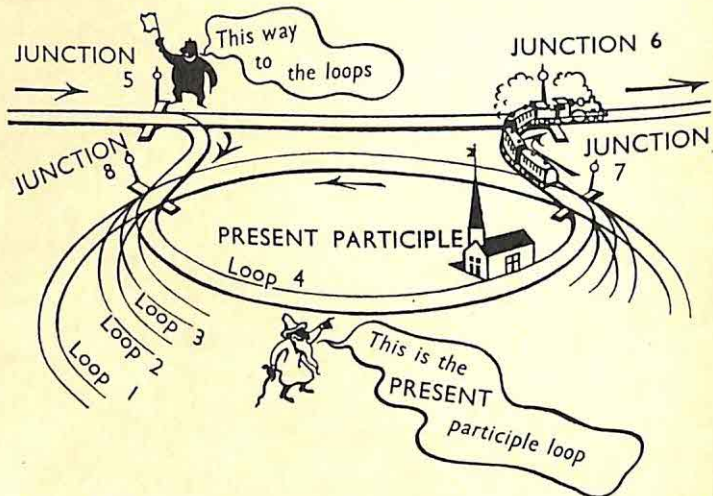
 Make a few more sentences like these.

CHAPTER 15

THE FOUR BIG LOOPS (*concluded*)

4. THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE LOOP

§609. The fourth (and last) of the four big loops is another simple one, as you will see. It has just one station on it, the Present Participle Station.



§610. The present participle, as you know (see §§261, 262), is one of the two members of the verb that end with *ing* (the other is the gerund).


§611. Most trains going to this Present Participle Station have started by picking up the finites *am*, *is*, *are*,

was and *were*. So most of the sentences that we can form are like those you see in these tables :

I	{	{	am (is or are) was (or were)	{	(not)	{	doing this
He							coming
We							going there
You							waiting for him
They							taking them away
etc.							etc.

OR

Am (Is or Are)	{	{	I he we you they etc.	{	(not)	{	doing this ?
Was (or Were)							coming ?
							going there ?
							waiting for him ?
							taking them away ?
							etc.

 Make some sentences from these tables, please.

§612. Now when members of the verb *to be* are combined with present participles (as we see here), the combination is called the **Progressive Form**.

§613. Some learners of English find it difficult to know when to use the simple finites and when to use the progressive form. You will see what I mean when you look at these two columns :

SIMPLE FINITES	PROGRESSIVE FORM
He <i>speaks</i> English.	He <i>is speaking</i> English.
They <i>eat</i> potatoes.	They <i>are eating</i> (some) potatoes.
Birds <i>fly</i> .	Those birds <i>are flying</i> .
I <i>wait</i> for him.	I <i>am waiting</i> for him.

§614. *He speaks English* generally means, of course, that the man we are talking about is a speaker of English ; he can speak it and sometimes does speak it ; but *He is speaking English* means that he started saying something in English a short time ago and that he has not yet finished. That is the sort of difference there is between the sentences in the two columns above.

§615. Then we have the same sort of difference in the past forms :

PAST SIMPLE FINITES

When I saw my friend, I opened the gate.

When I went out, it rained (it began to rain).

I read the book last week (and finished it).

PAST PROGRESSIVE FORM

When I saw my friend, I was opening the gate.

When I went out, it was raining.

I was reading the book last week (but have not finished it).

§616. You see how different the meanings are, and how useful it is to have such a form as the *progressive*.

§617. Now please change the following sentences in such a way as to use the progressive form instead of the simple finites printed in italic type.

1. I *help* him. 2. I *listen* to the music. 3. Somebody *followed* me. 4. We *passed* the house. 5. The men *work*. 6. He *makes* a lot of mistakes. 7. We *had* breakfast. 8. They *paint* the door green. 9. I *catch* a lot of fish. 10. They *got* some. 11. Somebody *rang* the bell. 12. He *looks* at it.

§618. The following sentences are made up of *do*, *does*, *did* and the infinitive. Can you change them in such a way as to use the progressive form ?

1. What do you take ? 2. I do not play. 3. Did you walk ? 4. What do you do ? 5. When does he come ? 6. We did not ask for anything. 7. Where does your friend live ? 8. Did he sit down ? 9. I did not do anything. 10. I don't read. 11. Does the sun shine ? 12. Why did you throw those stones into the water ?

§619. Now if I asked you to change these next sentences into the progressive form, I am sure that you would do it. But I am also sure that you would say, 'What funny sentences ! They sound all wrong !'

1. I know you. 2. You understand me. 3. We are here.

4. I remember it. 5. I believe so. 6. That does not matter.
7. I like those apples. 8. I am ready. 9. What do you mean ? 10. That belongs to me.

§620. Why is it that such sentences as these are all wrong or strange when we put them into the progressive form ? Well, to explain this would be a long and difficult matter. It is enough for you to know for the present that you had better not use the following verbs in the progressive form :

To be, to believe, to belong, to deserve, to dislike, to hate, to consist, to contain, to like, to love, to matter, to know, to mean, to please, to prefer, to seem, to understand.

§621. Here is a curious sort of sentence :

I am going to stop,

with the present participle *going* followed by the infinitive. You can make a lot of sentences like this :

I am (not)	} going to	{	do it.
You are (not)			wait.
He is (not)			speak to him.
etc.			be here.
Am I (not)			stay there,
Are you (not)			etc.
Is he (not)			
etc.			

§622. In all these cases *going* does not really mean *going somewhere*, but simply shows that what you say will happen (or will not happen) at some *future* time ; in a few minutes perhaps, or to-morrow or next year. We very often use this form instead of *I shall go*, *You will go*, etc. But we don't use such sentences as :

I am going to go.

I am going to come,

perhaps because it sounds so funny to say *going to go* or


going to come. We simply say *I am going ; I am coming.*
In sentences such as

I am going to the post later.

He is coming to London next year.

They are coming back next month,

it is clear that we are speaking not of something that is happening now, but of something that will happen in the future.

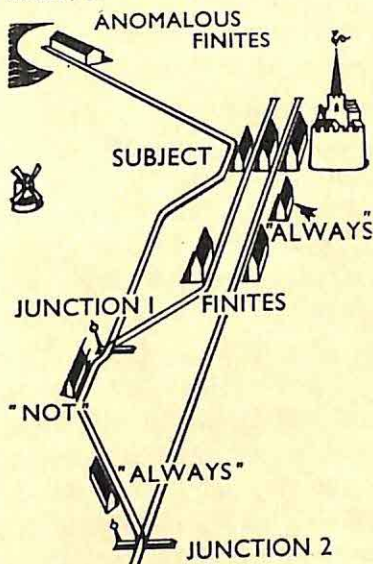
§623.  Make some more sentences, please, from the table shown in §621.

§624. There are quite a lot of other interesting things to learn about the four big loops, and how sentences can turn from one to another by means of the Roundabout Line. But we have no more time to talk about them now ; we have to see about other parts of the sentence, particularly all the things that we may finish sentences with and other ways of beginning sentences.

CHAPTER 16

ENDS AND BEGINNINGS

§625. We have seen that sentences are something like journeys because they have a beginning and an end. We have seen that an easy way of understanding the different ways in which sentences are built is to look at each sort as if it were a railway journey. We have seen how most sentences begin either with the subject or with an anomalous finite, like this :



§626. On the map §533 and in Chapters 12, 13, 14 and 15 we saw how at Junction 5 we may leave the main line

and travel along any of the four big loop-lines. From Junction 6, as we saw, our sentences can pass through several different lines to pick up various complements, etc.

§627. At any points (or stations) on the line our trains (or sentences) may finish their journey. Thus the sentence *He waits* finishes at the finite *waits*; the sentence *I am ready* finishes at the complement *ready*; the sentence *I like apples* finishes at the direct object *apples*; the sentence *I looked for it* finishes at the prepositional object *it*; the sentence *He comes here* finishes at the adverb of place *here*.

§628. Sentences may finish, too, at any of the chief stations on the big loops. The sentence *I don't know* finishes at the infinitive *know*; the sentence *Stop talking* finishes at the gerund *talking*; the sentence *It is broken* finishes at the past participle *broken*; and the sentence *I am working* finishes at the present participle *working*.

§629. But all sentences may continue their journey beyond these possible stopping points. For instance we may finish a sentence by saying *when* the action takes place, took place or will take place; or *how long* the action lasted or *how often* it takes place. Or we may finish a sentence with words describing *how* the action is, was or will be done.

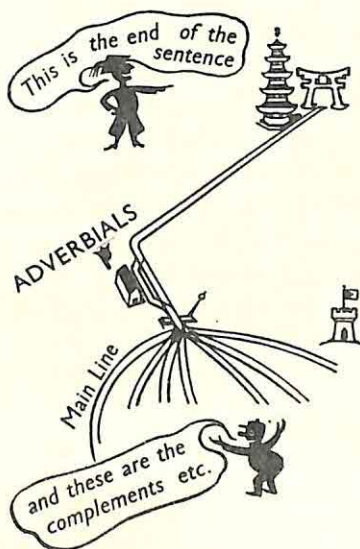
§630. The part of the sentence that answers such questions as 'When?', 'How often?', 'How long?' or 'How?' is generally called an **adverbial**. We call it an adverbial because it is either an adverb or a group of two or three words that are equal to an adverb. So we may have **adverbials of time**, **adverbials of frequency**, **adverbials of duration**, **adverbials of manner**, and so on.

§631. You will now see how sentences of all sorts may end with adverbials.

I came here	yesterday (<i>time</i>).
The others went away	last week (<i>time</i>).
They will come back	in a few days' time (<i>time</i>).
We did that	three years ago (<i>time</i>).
We went to see him	every day (<i>frequency</i>).
We stayed there	for three years (<i>duration</i>).
I shall be there	for a few moments (<i>duration</i>).
I saw him	in London (<i>place</i>).
He lives	near here (<i>place</i>).
Do it	quickly (<i>manner</i>).
He does it	with great difficulty (<i>manner</i>).

§632. Adverbs like *always*, *often*, *still*, *never*, etc., are, however, not put (or rarely put) at the end of the sentence but somewhere in the middle of the sentence, as we have seen.

§633. So we may finish our railway map like this :



and show the point where all simple¹ sentences must come to an end.

§634. But we need not put our adverbials at the end of the sentence ; we may put them at the very beginning. Let us see how they sound at the beginning of a sentence :

ADVERBIALS

Yesterday	I came here.
Last week	the others went away.
In a few days' time	they will come back.
Three years ago	we did that.
Every day	I went there.
From time to time	we went to see him.
For three years	we stayed there.
For a few moments	I shall be there.

These certainly sound all right, but the adverbials of *place* and *manner* do not sound so well at the beginning of the sentence :

In London	I saw him.
Near here	he lives.
Quickly	do it.
With great difficulty	he does it.

§635. Now one of the things that all learners of English have to study is *in which position* to put the adverbial. Which do you like better of these sentences ?

He saw three great wolves suddenly !

Suddenly he saw three great wolves !

He reached the top of the mountain at last.

At last he reached the top of the mountain.

We see wide streets, fine shops and beautiful parks in Paris.

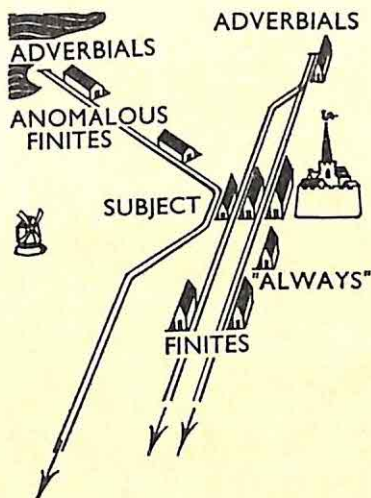
In Paris we see wide streets, fine shops and beautiful parks.

He succeeded in his efforts after many years of difficulty and danger.

After many years of difficulty and danger, he succeeded in his efforts.

¹ As we shall see in §646, compound sentences do *not* end here.

§636. The adverbials that begin the sentence may be shown on our map like this :



§637. Here is a good collection of adverbials of different sorts. Please make suitable sentences and put some of these adverbials at the beginning or at the end of them.

§638. The first are

ADVERBIALS OF TIME

to-day		}	this		}	week
yesterday			last			month
to-morrow			next			year
						time
on	Sunday	in	January	at	one o'clock	
	Monday		February		half-past two	
	Tuesday		March		a quarter-past three	
	etc.		etc.		etc.	
this	}	}	morning	}	last	
			afternoon		to-morrow	} night
			evening		the next	

in the	{ morning afternoon evening night }	on	{ Sunday Monday Tuesday }	{ morning afternoon evening night }
--------	--	----	---------------------------------	--

on the	{ first of second of third of }	{ January February March }
--------	---------------------------------------	----------------------------------

in before after	{ } {	{ nineteen eighteen seventeen }	{ } {	{ hundred hundred and one hundred and thirty-seven }
-----------------------	-------------	---------------------------------------	-------------	--

in the during the	{ } {	{ spring summer autumn winter day night evening }	this last next	{ } {	{ spring summer autumn winter }
----------------------	-------------	---	----------------------	-------------	--

a long time some time half an hour a moment a few minutes two days three weeks four months five years	{ } } } } } } } }	ago	in a few minutes in a quarter of an hour in an hour's time in twenty years' time
---	---	-----	---

§639. The next are

ADVERBIALS OF FREQUENCY

sometimes now and then from time to time very often	every	{ day week month year }
--	-------	----------------------------------

But most adverbs of frequency belong to the '*always*' class, and you know in what part of the sentence to put them.

§640. Now we come to

ADVERBIALS OF DURATION

(for)	{	a long time	since	{	then
		a short time			the New Year
		a few seconds			Christmas
		three minutes			spring
		four hours			summer
		five days			January
		six weeks			Monday
		seven years			one o'clock
		some time			

§641. The word *for* is often omitted. We can say, *I was there for two hours*, or *I was there two hours*. But *I have not been there for five years* and *I have not been there five years* mean two different things.

§642. Here are a number of

ADVERBIALS OF PLACE

in	{	England	{	at	{	the school
to		Europe		to		the town
from		Africa		from		the church
near		India		near		the post-office
		London				the shop
	{	in	{	the box		
		into		the book		
		out of		the drawer		
		on		the parcel		
		over		this		
		above		this one		
		under		that		
		in front of		the other		
		at the back of		the others		
		against		it		
		them				

§643. We may finish our list with a few

ADVERBIALS OF MANNER

like this
like that
in this way
in that way
in a very strange way
in a very strange manner

To these we may add a very large number of adverbs of manner, most of which end in *-ly*. See §358.

INTERROGATIVE WORDS

§644. In Chapter 9 we spoke of interrogative words such as *what, who, which, where, when, how* and *why*. When these words are used in real questions (§§432, 433), they are put at the beginning of the sentence.

WE DO NOT SAY :

That is what ?

He is who ?

Where it is ?

When you go ?

WE SAY :

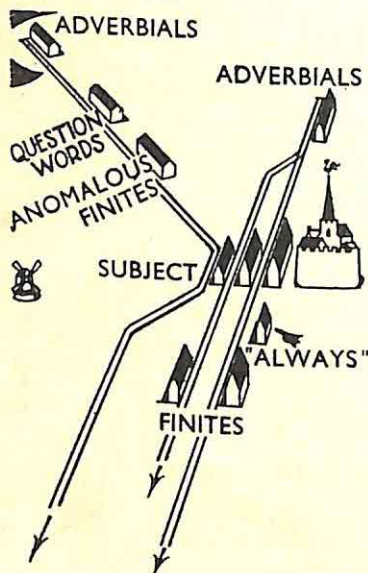
What is that ?

Who is he ?

Where is it ?

When do you go ?

§645. We can put these on our map before the anomalous finites, like this :



and by doing this we complete the map so far as simple sentences are concerned.

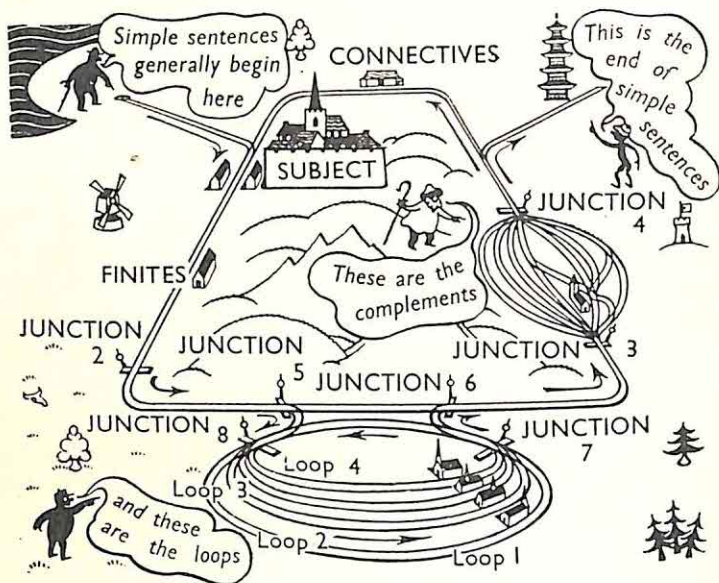
COMPOUND SENTENCES

§646. We have now seen the different ways in which *simple* sentences can start and end. But when a sentence has ended, we can begin a new one and join it up to the first; and often we can add a third or even a fourth sentence to the others. These two or more simple sentences when joined together are called **compound** sentences. We can thus *connect* sentences together, and the words that we connect them with are called **connectives**. In Chapter 9 we read all about these connectives and the way they join words and sentences together. We saw that some of these connective words are called **conjunctions**, and that there are different sorts of conjunctions such as **co-ordinating** conjunctions and **subordinating** conjunctions. We saw, too, that other sorts of connectives are called **relative pronouns**, and others are called **conjunctives**.

§647. We noticed, too, in §403 that when a sentence is divided into two or more little sentences, these little ones are called **clauses**. You did quite a number of exercises, too, and in these you practised joining simple clauses together by means of these connective words.

§648. Let us see on our railway map (p. 196) how, a little way from Junction 4, a connecting line takes us from any simple sentence to the beginning of a new one. We will not put in all the stations and little lines this time, but only the really important ones.

§649. You see from this how many different sorts of journeys we can make from the beginning to the end of a sentence, and how, when we have finished a sentence, we can begin another sentence by way of the connective line. In fact we may go round and round the circle several times before we come to the real end of a sentence.



Follow with your finger or pencil the line on the map for this sentence with three connectives printed in *italic type* :

Jim told me *that* he did not know *whether* he gave it to me *when* he came here yesterday.

§650. This is the end of all the things that you need know about English grammar for the present. One of these days you will probably read bigger and more difficult books about the use of English words and how to build sentences with them.

APPENDIX I

THE CONJUGATION

WHEN people study the grammar of a language, they like to see the various forms of its verbs set out and arranged in such a way that they can see them and learn their names. An arrangement of this sort is called the **conjugation** of the verb.

Now, there are several ways of arranging the forms of English verbs ; some grammarians arrange them in one way and other grammarians arrange them in other ways. The way I have set out the conjugation in the following pages is perhaps the easiest and most useful for you.

In this arrangement you will see the different **tenses** of the verb (such as the **present, past** and **future**), the different **forms** of the tenses (such as the **progressive** and **perfect** forms), the two **voices** (**active** and **passive**), and I have added what are called the **moods** of a verb (such as the **infinitive, indicative** and **imperative** moods).

Here is the **Conjugation Table** (as it is called). I have chosen the verb *to take* as an example. You may make the same sort of table for other verbs, such as *to be, to have, to do* or *to give*.

CONJUGATION OF THE
ACTIVE

Ordinary (or Non-Progressive) Tenses

PRESENT

1a	1b
SIMPLE (See §§207-222)	COMPOUND (See §§544-556)
I take	I do take
You take	You do take
He takes	He does take
We take	We do take
They take	They do take

PAST

2a	2b
I took	I did take
You took	You did take
He took	He did take
We took	We did take
They took	They did take

FUTURE

3 (See §561)
I shall take
You will take (Shall you take ?)
He will take
We shall take
They will take

FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST

4 (See §561)
I should take
You would take (Should you take ?)
He would take
We should take
They would take

VERB 'TO TAKE'

VOICE (This means : *not the passive voice.* See §§272, 275)
Progressive Tenses (See §267)

TENSE

5 (See §215)

I am taking
You are taking
He is taking
We are taking
They are taking

TENSE

6 (See §219)

I was taking
You were taking
He was taking
We were taking
They were taking

TENSE

7

I shall be taking
You will be taking (Shall you be taking ?)
He will be taking
We shall be taking
They will be taking

TENSE

8

I should be taking
You would be taking (Should you be taking ?)
He would be taking
We should be taking
They would be taking

CONJUGATION OF THE
ACTIVE

The Perfect

Ordinary (or Non-Progressive) Tenses

PRESENT PERFECT

9

I have taken
You have taken
He has taken
We have taken
They have taken

PAST PERFECT

10

I had taken
You had taken
He had taken
We had taken
They had taken

FUTURE PERFECT

11

I shall have taken
You will have taken (Shall you have taken ?)
He will have taken
We shall have taken
They will have taken

FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST PERFECT

12

I should have taken
You would have taken (Should you have taken ?)
He would have taken
We should have taken
They would have taken

VERB 'TO TAKE' (*continued*)

VOICE (*continued*)

Tenses (See §§593-597)

Progressive Tenses

TENSE

13

I have been taking
You have been taking
He has been taking
We have been taking
They have been taking

TENSE

14

I had been taking
You had been taking
He had been taking
We had been taking
They had been taking

TENSE

15

I shall have been taking
You will have been taking (Shall you have been taking ?)
He will have been taking
We shall have been taking
They will have been taking

TENSE

16

I should have been taking
You would have been taking (Should you have been taking ?)
~~He would have been taking~~
We should have been taking
They would have been taking

CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE

Ordinary (or Non-Progressive) Tenses

PRESENT PASSIVE

17

I am taken
You are taken
He is taken
We are taken
They are taken

PAST PASSIVE

18

I was taken
You were taken
He was taken
We were taken
They were taken

FUTURE PASSIVE TENSE

19

I shall be taken
You will be taken (Shall you be taken ?)
He will be taken
We shall be taken
They will be taken

FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST PASSIVE TENSE

20

I should be taken
You would be taken (Should you be taken ?)
He would be taken
We should be taken
They would be taken

VERB 'TO TAKE' (*continued*)

VOICE (See §§272, 275)

Progressive Tenses

TENSE

21

I am being taken
You are being taken
He is being taken
We are being taken
They are being taken

TENSE

22

I was being taken
You were being taken
He was being taken
We were being taken
They were being taken

The only other two passive tenses that are used are these :

PRESENT PERFECT PASSIVE TENSE

23

I have been taken
You have been taken
He has been taken
We have been taken
They have been taken

PAST PERFECT PASSIVE TENSE

24

I had been taken
You had been taken
He had been taken
We had been taken
They had been taken

NOTES ON THESE TWENTY-FOUR TENSES

Tenses 1a and 2a compared with Tenses 1b and 2b

Tenses 1a and 2a are **simple** tenses. All the others are **compound** tenses.

Many sorts of sentences cannot be made without an anomalous finite in them. This is particularly the case when the sentences are **emphatic** (see §§555-559); when the sentences are **negative** (see §§539-547); or when the sentences need **subject-inversion** (see §237). Here are some examples:

Emphatic affirmative sentences: I *do* like it! Do sit down! He *did* come here! It *does* sound funny!

Negative sentences: Do not (or Don't) take that. He does not (or doesn't) know. We did not (or didn't) take that one.

Subject-inversion: Do you understand? What does he want? Where did you go? He does not like it and nor do I. Not only did he take them but he ate them!

Whenever an anomalous finite is needed in Tenses 1 and 2, it is the 1b and 2b forms that are used.

Tense 1 compared with Tense 5. (See Chapter 15)

TENSE 1

I go there every day.

He speaks English.

TENSE 5

I am going there now.

He is speaking English now.

Tense 2

When you say: *I took it* or *I got up* or *I spoke to him* or *I went away*, etc., you mean that you did these things some time in the past, perhaps a few minutes ago or a few years ago.

If you say: *I got up, I washed and dressed, I came downstairs and had breakfast, I took my hat and went out*, you really mean: **First I got up, then I washed and dressed, after that I came downstairs and had breakfast, and then I took my hat and went out.**

Sometimes the use of this past tense means that something happened many times in the past, that something was done

regularly. If you say *John went to school in England*, you mean that John used to go to school every day (or nearly every day) for some months or some years.

This past tense is used when you are telling somebody what somebody else said to you.

JOHN SAYS TO YOU :	YOU SAY TO SOMEBODY ELSE :
I <i>am</i> ready.	John told me that he <i>was</i> ready.
I <i>like</i> walking.	John told me that he <i>liked</i> walking.
Do you often come here ?	John asked me whether I often <i>came</i> here.
I <i>don't</i> know.	John said that he <i>didn't</i> know.

When you tell somebody what John said to you, you use what is called **indirect speech**. But what John says to you is in **direct speech**.

This tense is sometimes used not to express a *past* action but a **conditional** action to take place now or in the future. Thus

TENSE 1	TENSE 2
If I <i>have</i> a knife, I <i>can</i> cut.	If I <i>had</i> a knife, I <i>could</i> cut (but I have no knife).

After *would rather* we use Tense 2 to express a future action. Thus :

I would rather you *went* there to-morrow.
He would rather I *came* back next year.

Tense 2 compared with Tense 6. (See §615)

TENSE 2	TENSE 6
Then I went to the station (and I got there).	I was going to the station (but I was stopped and did not get there).

Tense 3 compared with Tense 7

TENSE 3

I shall work when you come
(but I shall not work
before you come).

I shall go to London to-morrow.
(I now decide to go to London to-morrow.)

TENSE 7

I shall be working when you
come. (When you come
you will find me working.)

I shall be going to London to-morrow.
(I have already decided to go to London to-morrow.)

Tense 4 compared with Tense 8

The difference between these two is just about the same as the difference between Tenses 3 and 7.

Tenses 3, 7, 11, 15 and 19

Shall is generally used after *I* and *we*; *will* is generally used in all other cases. But note :

I shall go = I mean to go (whether you like it or not).

I will go = I now promise you to go; you ask me to go
and I say 'yes.'

Note too :

Shall you go ? = Tell me what you mean to do : to go or
not to go ?

Will you go ? = Please go.

Tenses 4, 8, 12, 16 and 20

Should and *would* are generally used in the same way as *shall* and *will*. But each of these words has more than one special meaning. Sometimes *should* means nearly the same thing as *ought to*.

He would not go sometimes means : *He refused to go ; he said, 'No ! I won't go !'*

These tenses are called **Future-in-the-past** because in past indirect speech they are used to express the future. Like this :

DIRECT SPEECH	PAST INDIRECT SPEECH
(<i>What people really say</i>)	(<i>What we say that people have said</i>)
John says :	We say :
My friend will come to-morrow.	John said that his friend would come the next day.
Will the others be ready ?	John asked whether the others would be ready.
Shall you be here ?	John asked whether I should be here.
I shall not do that.	John said that he would not do that.

Tenses 2 and 9

Some learners of English find it hard to know when to use Tense 2 and Tense 9 and what is really the difference between them.

This is perhaps the best way to explain the difference. If you look at §§630-638, you will find a lot of things called **adverbials of time**, such as *yesterday, last week, to-day, a long time ago, this month*.

It is quite easy to divide these into two groups :

ADVERBIALS OF PAST TIME	ADVERBIALS OF PRESENT TIME
then	now
yesterday	to-day
last week	this week
a long time ago	already
last Sunday	not yet

and so on.

Now, when your sentence has an adverbial of *past* time in it you must use Tense 2 :

I did it then.

We *saw* him yesterday.

They *came* back last week.

Did you give it to me a long time ago ?

I did not take them last Sunday.

But when your sentence has *no* adverbial of past time in it, but an adverbial of present time, do not use Tense 2 ; use Tense 9 :

I have done it now.

We *have seen* him to-day.

They *have come* back this week.

Have you already *given* it to me ?

I have not taken them yet.

Here is another way to explain the difference between Tense 2 and Tense 9.

If you say : *I have opened the door, I have put my book on the table, I have taken my hat off, He has cut the tree down, or John has gone to London*, people understand that the door is now open, that your book is now on the table, that your hat is now off, that the tree is now lying on the ground, and that John is now in London.

But if you say : *I opened the door, I put my book on the table, I took my hat off, He cut the tree down, or John went to London*, nobody knows whether the door is now open or not, whether your book is now on the table or not, whether your hat is now on or off, whether the tree is now lying on the ground or has been taken away, or whether John is still in London or has come back from London.

Tense 10

This tense, the past perfect, could be called the 'past-in-the-past,' because it is used when speaking of an action which took place *before* a moment in the past.

We note that this tense is used particularly with *already* and *not yet*. Thus :

I saw John yesterday, but I had already seen him the day before.

At four o'clock yesterday the letter had not yet come.

This tense is used in *past indirect speech*. Thus :

JOHN SAYS TO YOU :	YOU SAY TO SOMEBODY ELSE :
<i>I saw you yesterday.</i>	John told me that he <i>had seen</i> me the day before.
<i>I have now finished my work.</i>	John told me that he <i>had then finished</i> his work.

Tense 11

This tense could be called the 'past-in-the-future,' because it is used when speaking of an action that will take place *before* a moment in the future.

This tense, too, is used particularly with *already* and *not yet*. Thus :

It is no use for you to come next Tuesday to help me with my work, because on Tuesday I *shall* (already) *have finished* my work.

If you come next Tuesday, you can help me with my work, because on Tuesday I *shall* not yet *have started* my work.

Tense 4 compared with Tense 12

TENSES 2 AND 4

If he *went* to bed early to-night, he *would get up* early to-morrow.

John says : ' If I *saw* Jim, I *should speak* to him.'

TENSES 10 AND 12

If he *had gone* to bed early last night, he *would have got up* early this morning.

John told me that if he *had seen* Jim, he *would have spoken* to him.

Tenses 13, 14, 15, 16

These tenses are generally used instead of Tenses 9, 10, 11, 12 when we add to the sentence such expressions as *for a long time*, *for some time past*, or other words that show that we are speaking of an action that continues, or a number of actions. Thus :

I have been doing this work for three hours without resting.

Before I went to England, *I had been learning* English for four years.

Next September, *I shall have been living* in this house for a year.

If John had not come back from England last year, he *would have been living* there for exactly twenty years.

The Passive Tenses

If you know how to use the tenses of the active voice, you will have no difficulty with those of the passive voice. Each of the passive tenses is used in the same way as the corresponding tense of the active voice. Thus :

ACTIVE

Tense 1. In England people speak English.

Tense 2. Somebody made a mistake.

Tense 5. Somebody is following me.

Tense 9. Nobody has taken anything.

and so on.

PASSIVE

Tense 17. In England English is spoken.

Tense 18. A mistake was made by somebody.

Tense 21. I am being followed by somebody.

Tense 23. Nothing has been taken by anybody ;

MOODS

In some grammar-books the conjugation table shows not only the tenses, voices and forms of the verb but also what are called the **moods** of the verb. There are three of these moods : the **indicative**, the **imperative**, and the **subjunctive** moods.

INDICATIVE MOOD

All the twenty-four tenses you see in the above table are in the **indicative mood**. They are called *indicative* because they *indicate* (or point out) something that the speaker wants to say or ask.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

When we order somebody to do something, we use the **imperative mood**. We say *Take this, Come here, please, or Just shut the door*. See §217 and §450.

The only difference between the imperative and Tense 1 of the indicative is that it is used only in connection with the person to whom you are speaking. Thus

INDICATIVE	IMPERATIVE
You take	Take
You do take	Do take
You don't (or do not) take	Don't (or Do not) take

The imperative may be used in the *progressive* form, thus :

Don't be playing when your uncle comes ; *be working* in the garden or *be writing* letters.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

In the English that we use at the present day the only difference between the indicative and the subjunctive is that **were** is used instead of **was** in Tense 2 of the verb *to be* when we make a condition. We say :

If I *were* you, I should do it in a different way.

If he *were* here, I could explain it to him.

In the sort of English people spoke a long time ago, they took away the -s of the third person singular when they wanted to use the subjunctive. We still hear this form in *God save the King!* This really means : *I pray (or hope) that God may save the King.*

People used to say, too, *If he be here*, etc., but to-day we always say *If he is here*, etc.

APPENDIX II

VOCABULARY

The vocabulary used in this New Method Grammar corresponds to that of the *New Method Readers*, Books 1 to 4, supplemented by grammatical terms and other words specially needed for this book.

1. GRAMMATICAL TERMS

The following are the grammatical terms used in this book. Most of them are defined or explained when they first occur.

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adverb, Chap. 8

— of degree, §§ 364–371
— of frequency, §§ 361, 362
— of manner, §§ 357, 358
— of place, § 363
— of time, § 360
—, position of, § 374
— complement, §§ 475, 491,
492, 509

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— of duration, § 640
— of manner, § 643
— of place, § 642
— of time, § 638
— particles, §§ 376–390

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verb

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 passive —, §§ 272, 275, 602-605, App. I

2. OTHER SPECIAL WORDS

The following words have been used for the purpose of explanations, directions and examples. The other words are those used in the *New Method Readers*, Books 1 to 4.

alike
 avoid
 barrel
 capital (letters)
 celebrated
 charming
 coach
 column
 combine
 comma
 compare
 connect
 consist
 convenient, inconvenient
 dash
 dictionary
 disappointing
 etc. (et cetera)
 exciting
 frequently
 generally
 gramophone
 group
 (for) instance
 italic, italicize
 junction
 kite
 landmark

lively
 lonely
 loop-line
 modify
 moral
 nut
 occur
 offended
 parenthesis, parentheses
 particular, -ly
 position
 possessive
 prefer
 presently
 pronounce, pronunciation
 pool
 pupil
 recognize
 replace
 roundabout
 shortly
 spelling
 stiff
 suggest
 suitable
 type
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- compound — forms, § 532
- used transitively, §§ 292-294

verb

- used intransitively, §§ 292-294

voice

- active —, §§ 272, 275, 604-605, App. I
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 dash
 dictionary
 disappointing
 etc. (et cetera)
 exciting
 frequently
 generally
 gramophone
 group
 (for) instance
 italic, italicize
 junction
 kite
 landmark

lively
 lonely
 loop-line
 modify
 moral
 nut
 occur
 offended
 parenthesis, parentheses
 particular, -ly
 position
 possessive
 prefer
 presently
 pronounce, pronunciation
 pool
 pupil
 recognize
 replace
 roundabout
 shortly
 spelling
 stiff
 suggest
 suitable
 type
 various
 wool

Simple sentences generally begin here

ADVERBIALS

ANOMALOUS FINITES

These are Landmarks

SUBJECT

Line C

ANOMALOUS FINITES

JUNCTION 1

"NOT"

Line B

Line A
ORDINARY
FINITES

"ALWAYS"

JUNCTION 2

and this is a

JUNCTION 5

JUNCTION 8

Here is the RO
PRESENT P

Loop 4

Loop 3

Loop 2

Loop 1

and these are the loops

CONNECTIVES

Simple sentences generally
end here

ADVERBIALS

These are the
complements

JUNCTION 4

PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT

PREPOSITIONS

ADVERB
COMPLEMENT

This is a
Landmark

DIRECT OBJECT

INDIRECT OBJECT

JUNCTION 3

JUNCTION 6

JUNCTION 7

PRINCIPLE

PARTICIPLE

GERUND

INFINITIVE

This is the KEY Map